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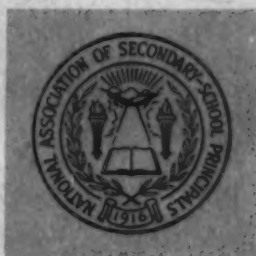
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Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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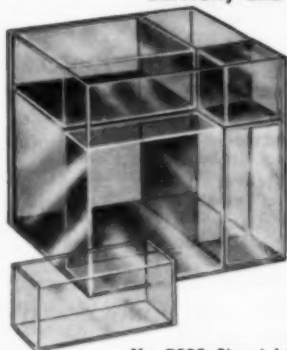
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An Objective Approach to Extra Pay for Extra Work

AVERNO M. REMPEL

ONE of the persistent problems in the determination of salaries and the development of salary schedules is the question of paying for services rendered by teachers beyond the normal teaching load. Ideally, teaching loads should be equalized and "extra pay" eliminated. Many educators do not regard extra pay as a satisfactory solution to the problem of extra duties. They feel that extra pay practices prostitute the profession and encourage teachers to assume duties requiring time that should be devoted to teaching responsibilities.

The fact remains, however, that the practice of paying more than the regular salary to teachers with certain specific assignments is widespread. In a 1958-59 survey to school districts over 30,000 in population, 493 out of 554 granted extra pay for extra duties.¹ Limited budgets, teacher shortages, after-school work opportunities, and the increasing complexity of school programs and services are some of the factors that have encouraged the establishment of extra-pay practices.

It is also true that extra-pay provisions have usually been "tacked on" to the regular salary schedule without adequate analysis and objective appraisal of the extra duties for which additional remuneration is provided. Often the extra amounts agreed upon are unrelated to either the quantity or the quality of extra work to be performed. Attempts to make qualitative evaluations of the extra assignments on the basis of adequate data are almost completely lacking. There have been a few scattered attempts by some school systems to establish "index" or "unit" ratings for particular extra duties. Certainly it seems urgent that increased attention be given to the development of approaches or methods making possible a more objective and more adequate appraisal of the duties for which extra pay is provided. Only in this way can sound payment practices for these duties be effected.

SOUTH BEND STUDY

A concern for determining the equity and adequacy of policies relating to extra pay for extra work led the school system of South Bend, Indiana, to ask the assistance of the Division of Education at Purdue University in

¹ American Association of School Administrators and National Education Association, Research Division, "Extra-Pay Provisions in 1959-60 Salary Schedules," *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 4. May 1960. P. 2.

Averno M. Rempel is Executive Assistant, Division of Education, School of Science, Education, and Humanities, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

making a cooperative study of this problem. The procedures that were used in the study are described here. Although the methods were geared to fit the needs of a particular school system, the general approach and principles worked out may well have wider application.²

It was decided that extra pay for extra work should take into account three factors: (1) the total clock hours devoted to the extra duty during the school year outside of the school day, (2) the quality and importance of the assignment, and (3) the basic salary of teachers generally.

TIME FACTOR

An instrument designed to provide information about the time classroom teachers devote to various professional activities was distributed to each teacher in the system. The completed questionnaires were returned to the building principals. Principals and department heads signed the questionnaires to indicate official verification and approval of the data supplied.

From these data, it was possible to compute the average number of clock hours per year that were devoted to the various duties on the extra pay schedule *outside of the school day*. The averages obtained varied from 27 clock hours for elementary track coaches to 489 clock hours for head basketball coaches. It was found that actual time devoted to some of the assignments varied considerably between teachers and schools. The extra duties were then classified arbitrarily according to time intervals within which they fell as shown in the table below.

<i>Time Category</i>	<i>Number of Hours</i>
A	25-49
B	50-74
C	75-124
D	125-174
E	175-224
F	225-274
G	275-324
H	325-374
I	375-424
J	425-474*

*Upper limit was set at 474 although one duty was somewhat above this limit.

QUALITY FACTORS

The extra-pay schedule should also be related to the quality and nature of the extra assignments. These assignments differ with respect to such things as the training and proficiencies required, the vitality demanded, and the degree and level of responsibility involved in their performance. Therefore, a cooperative effort by South Bend and Purdue personnel was

² The complete report is available: Averno M. Rempel and Associates, *A Cooperative Study of Teacher Professional Loads, Extra Assignments, and Extra Pay of the School City of South Bend*. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University. Studies in Education, No. 4. 1960. 69 pp. + vi.

made to identify the factors that should be used as a basis for making quality judgments about the extra duties. A similar analysis made by the Grosse Point Public Schools in Michigan as part of a personnel study was found helpful. The following list of twenty-two factors was developed to be used in the rating of the various extra duties:

1. *Additional Formal Education*—in addition to licensing requirements needed to perform the duties. (3.0)

2. *Prior Job Experience*—amount of over-all job experience required by the average employee in order to meet the minimum qualifications for the assignment. (2.5)

3. *Individually Acquired Knowledge*—requirements for in-service growth through individual self-improvement activities such as reading trade or professional publications, keeping abreast of current affairs, or expanding knowledge and proficiency through observation and experimentation. (3.5)

4. *Knowledge of Procedures, Systems, and Routines*—extent to which the duty requires experience and skill with particular procedures, techniques, and routines. (3.5)

5. *Special Skills*—need for large muscle skills, manual dexterity, musical, and artistic skills. (3.5)

6. *Initiative*—extent to which the exercise of initiative or "self-starting" is required in the course of the duties. (4.5)

7. *Judgment*—the degree of judgment required in reaching independent decisions that affect the school system as a whole. (4.5)

8. *Creative Ability*—the extent to which the assignment requires original thinking, and creating and developing new ideas, methods, and procedures. (4.5)

9. *Attention Demand*—amount of visual and mental concentration required by the job with attendant psychological tensions and pressure. (4.0)

10. *Physical Demands*—nature and continuity of physical effect required in performing the duty under ordinary circumstances. (3.0)

11. *Working Conditions*—presence, relative amount of, and continuity of exposure to such elements as heat, cold, poor ventilation, overcrowding, noise, etc. in the performance of the job. (2.5)

12. *Relations with Other School Employees*—the extent to which the assignment customarily requires contact with other school employees to obtain their attention, cooperation, and good will. (4.0)

13. *Relations with Public*—the extent to which the duty requires contact with people outside the school and the importance to the school of those contacts. (4.0)

14. *Meeting Specific Achievement Standards*—frequency with which the work is checked and verified by others and the importance to the school system as a whole of errors of omission or commission which may occur. (3.5)

15. *Supervisory Responsibilities*—the extent to which the assignment requires the discharge of administrative or supervisory duties involving other employees in the system and is concerned with such activities as organizing working groups, delegating responsibilities, and training subordinates. (4.0)

16. *Managerial Responsibilities*—degree of responsibility for smooth and efficient operation—attention to detail, meeting deadlines, and handling routine. (4.0)

17. *Educational Responsibilities*—the extent to which the activity focuses on desirable educational outcomes and behavioral changes.

18. *Policy Making and Interpretation*—the degree to which the duty involves participation in the formulation and interpretation of policies affecting the school system or any of its major units of operation and the importance of these policies to the system as a whole. (4.0)

19. *Complexity of Duties*—the complexity of the tasks demanded in the normal course of operations; the number and importance of decisions which must be made; the nature of the problems which must be dealt with. (4.0)

20. *Physical Property and Materials*—the degree of care the duty demands to prevent waste, loss, or damage of the physical property of the school corporation. (3.0)

21. *Health, Safety, and Conduct of Children*—degree of concern in maintaining conditions conducive to good child welfare. (4.0)

22. *Monetary Control*—the extent to which the assignment involves the following: (a) accountability for funds, (b) responsibility for investment of capital in fixed assets, (c) responsibility for investment in supplies, equipment, etc. (not mere replacement), (d) responsibilities for budgetary control. (3.0)

Since it could not be assumed that these factors should receive equal weight in the evaluation, a panel of eight Purdue professors and a special South Bend committee assigned weights on a five-point scale as to the importance that should be attached to each of these factors in evaluating the extra duties. The numbers in parentheses following the factor descriptions are the mean weights determined for each factor when weightings were pooled. The correlation coefficient between the factor weights assigned by the Purdue committee and those assigned by the South Bend committee was .70.

Having established the list of factors and their relative importance in determining the quality of an extra assignment, the next step in securing an objective analysis of extra pay in South Bend was to secure a job description of each of 44 extra assignments expected of teachers.

Three special South Bend committees were set up, each composed of a general administration person, a high-school principal, a junior high-school principal, an elementary principal, and three representatives from music and physical education, the teaching groups with the largest numbers on the extra-pay schedule. It was attempted to structure the committees so as to give a cross-section of opinions of those in the best position to know the problems involved with the assignments covered by the extra-pay schedule. Each of the members of the three committees and also the Purdue panel of eight professors indicated on a special rating form the degree to which each of the factors listed previously was essential to the successful performance of the particular assignment on a five-point scale.

In each assignment, the average rating of the extent to which each factor was deemed essential in the performance of the task was multiplied by the factor weight (numbers in parentheses previously given with the list of factors). The sum of these products was referred to as the rating

aggregate for the assignment. Mean rating aggregates were determined when all the ratings were pooled. The over-all mean rating aggregates varied from a high of 329 for the head football coach to a low of 188 for the noon supervisor. Table I presents a sample form for determining the rating aggregate. Ratings by the eight Purdue professors are listed for the duty of debate coach. The rating aggregate assigned by this group for debate coach is 261. Rating aggregates assigned by each of the three South Bend committees were similarly determined. The over-all rating aggregate was then simply the mean of the four committee ratings.

The results of the qualitative ratings by the Purdue and South Bend committees were used to set up four classes of extra assignments. The assignments which ranked the highest were placed in Group IV, the next highest in Group III, *etc.*, and those ranked the lowest in Group I. Cut-off points between groups were set arbitrarily where the largest gaps occurred between the rating aggregates, with some attention being given to placing similar duties in the same class. Thus it was possible to list each duty in a bi-dimensional table according to quality rating and time category. (See Table II.)

BASE SALARY

Payments for extra responsibilities should be related to the basic or regular salaries of the teachers. Regular salaries represent the level teachers have reached, for the profession as a whole, and for the individuals within the profession. Hence extra pay, for teachers *as teachers*, should reflect this achievement. This could be done in several ways. Payments for extra duties might be based on the teacher's actual salary on the salary schedule, or on the median salary of all teachers, or on some specified base salary. The South Bend system decided to gear the extra payments to the regular salary of the teacher on the schedule. It was argued that the salary schedule presumably recognizes certain factors contributing to teacher effectiveness. If it is desirable to differentiate between teachers' salaries on the basis of these factors on the regular salary schedule, the same principle should apply to the extra-pay schedule.

The use of a specified base salary, or the median salary of all teachers is less complicated. Also, if it is felt that the regular salary schedule sufficiently rewards the experience and professional preparation of teachers, then a fixed base salary is desirable.

FORMULA

The various critical factors which deserve recognition in extra pay—time category, quality category, and base pay—must finally be combined in a formula which will yield an appropriate extra payment for each teacher having an extra assignment. The following general formula was set up:

$$\text{Extra Pay} = \text{Base Salary} \times \text{Time Factor} \times \text{Quality Factor}$$

TABLE II. South Bend Classification of Extra Duties According to Quality Group and Time Category

Quality

Time Category	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
A (25-49)	El. Track Coach	Boy Patrol Sponsor	City-Wide Curriculum Ch'man	
B (50-74)		A-V Coordinator Jr.H.S. Baseball Coach Jr.H.S. Track Coach Director of Intramurals	Weekly Newspaper Sponsor El.-Jr.H.S. Music (Vocal)	H.S. Drama Coach
C (75-124)	Usher's Club Sponsor	El. Basketball Coach Tennis Coach Cross Country Coach Debate Coach Senior Class Sponsor As't Jr.H.S. Football Coach As't Sr.H.S. Baseball Coach	Sr.H.S. Baseball Coach Business Coordinator Jr.H.S. Football Coach Jr.H.S. Basketball Coach	
D (125-174)	Noon Supervisor	Board of Control Comptroller Social Chairman As't Sr.H.S. Track Coach	Wrestling Coach	Department Head H.S. Choral Director
E (175-224)		State Manager	El.-Jr.H.S. Music (Instr.) Swimming Coach Sr.H.S. Track Coach	Orchestra Director
F (225-274)			Cafeteria Manager Yearbook Sponsor	Band Director Athletic Director
G (275-324)				
H (325-374)			As't Football Coach As't Basketball Coach	
I (375-424)				
J (425-474)				H.S. Football Coach H.S. Basketball Coach

Time

The *base salary* can be either an individual's school salary according to the salary schedule, or the median salary of all teachers, or some specified base salary. As has been indicated, South Bend chose the first alternative.

The *time factor* is computed on the basis of the proportion of time that the extra duty takes of the total number of hours devoted to the regular professional assignment. On the average, teachers in the South Bend system spend approximately 1800 hours per school year in their regular assignment (50 hours per week x 36 weeks). Therefore, the time factor can be computed by dividing the median number of hours for the time category in which the extra assignment is placed by 1800; e.g., for social chairman which is in Time Category D, the time factor would be 150/1800. (See Table II.)

The *quality factor* is represented by the quality group in which the extra assignment has been placed; i.e., highest in Group IV, next highest in Group III, etc., and the lowest in Group I. It can be expressed as a percentage, arbitrarily set for each group. For example, the quality factor might be set at 100 per cent for Group IV, 90 per cent for Group III, 80 per cent for Group II, and 70 per cent for Group I. This means, that if these percentages are placed in the general formula as representing the quality factor, that for an assignment with a Group IV rating, the school system is paying at the rate of 100 per cent of the base salary for the amount of time involved in performing that assignment in relation to the total time for the regular assignment; if the duty has a Group III rating, then the rate of pay is 90 per cent of the base salary, etc.

The South Bend schools, after considering various possibilities, set the following quality factors for the various quality groups:

Group IV	.60 or 60%
Group III	.50 or 50%
Group II	.40 or 40%
Group I	.30 or 30%

A few examples are given, using the South Bend standards to illustrate the procedures.

Example A. The position of athletic director is classified as IV F. (See Table II.) Assume that the person filling this position was earning a salary of \$5,000. The time factor for Time Category F is 250/1800. For Class IV, the quality factor is .60. Then the extra pay is $5,000 \times 250/1800 \times .60$, or \$425 (rounded to the nearest \$25).

Example B. The assistant football coach is classified III H. In Time Category H the time factor is 350/1800. The quality factor has been set at .50 for Class III. Assuming that his regular salary on the schedule is \$6,000, then the extra pay is $6,000 \times 350/1800 \times .50$, or \$575 (rounded to the nearest \$25).

Once the quality factor has been set for the four classes of extra duties, computation procedures can be simplified by combining the time factor and quality factor into a single index (referred to as the *extra pay index*).

TABLE III. South Bend Extra Pay Indexes for Extra Duties Classified According to Quality Group and Time Category

Quality

Time Category & Time Index	Group I (.30 or 30%)		Group II (.40 or 40%)		Group III (.50 or 50%)		Group IV (.60 or 60%)	
	Duty	Extra-Pay Index	Duty	Extra-Pay Index	Duty	Extra-Pay Index	Duty	Extra-Pay Index
A (25-49) .021	El. Track Coach	.006	Boy Patrol Sponsor	.008	City-Wide Curriculum Chrm.	.011		
B (50-74) .035			A-V Coordinator Jr.H.S. Baseball Coach Jr.H.S. Track Coach Director of Intra- murals	.014	Weekly Newspaper Sponsor El.-Jr.H.S. Music (Vocal)	.018	H.S. Drama Coach	.021
C (75-124) .056	Usher's Club Sponsor	.017	El. Basketball Coach Tennis Coach Cross Country Coach Debate Coach Sr. Class Sponsor Ast. Jr.H.S. Foot- ball Coach Ast. Sr.H.S. Base- ball Coach	.022	Sr.H.S. Baseball Coach Business Coordinator Jr.H.S. Football Coach Jr.H.S. Basketball Coach	.028		
D (125-174) .083	Noon Supervisor	.025	Board of Control Comptroller Social Chrm. Ast. Sr.H.S. Track Coach	.033	Wrestling Coach	.042	Department Head H.S. Choral Director	.050
E (175-224) 111			Stage Manager	.044	El.-Jr.H.S. Music (Instr.) Swimming Coach Sr.H.S. Track Coach	.056	Orchestra Director	.067

Time

TABLE III.—Continued

Time Category & Time Index	Quality			
	Group I (.30 or 30%)	Group II (.40 or 40%)	Group III (.50 or 50%)	Group IV (.60 or 60%)
	Duty	Extra-Pay Index	Duty	Extra-Pay Index
F (225-274) .139			Cafeteria Manager Yearbook Sponsor	.070
G (275-324) .167			Band Director Athletic Director	.083
H (325-374) .194				
I (375-424) .222			Ast. Football Coach Ast. Basketball Coach	.097
J (425-474) .250				
			H.S. Football Coach H.S. Basketball Coach	.150

Time

By multiplying the quality and time factor, extra-pay indexes can be calculated for each duty.

In Table III, the extra-pay indexes have been computed and listed for the various South Bend extra duties when classified according to quality groups and time category. It should be noted that the extra-pay index is computed by multiplying the time factor or index by the quality factor. For example, the orchestra director is classified as IV E. For this cell, the time index is .111 and the quality index has been set at .60. Therefore, the extra-pay index is $.111 \times .60$, or .067. To figure the extra pay for the person filling this position, his salary is multiplied by .067; i.e., if the salary is \$6,000 the extra pay is $\$6,000 \times .067$, or \$400 (rounded to the nearest \$25).

SUMMARY

Certainly, other methods are feasible in attempting to evaluate extra assignments qualitatively and also in establishing a schedule of payments. The procedure must be worked out with full cooperation between administrative personnel and teaching staff and must be adapted to the local situation.

However, the main factors taken into account in the South Bend project would appear to be basic in any school system concerned about equitable extra-pay practices. It is important to take into consideration the amount of *extra* time involved in the extra assignment. Also, the duties vary in terms of required training and proficiencies, mental requirements, vitality demands, and degree of responsibility. This necessitates setting up definite criteria on the basis of which the duties can be evaluated. The evaluation process will involve subjective judgments, but, at least, representative judgments can be secured in a systematic fashion and appropriate quantitative measures applied. Finally, the extra-pay schedule should be considered in relationship to the regular salaries. Either the extra pay should be proportional to the regular salary of the teacher on the schedule, or else it should relate to some fixed base salary.

It is hoped that if schools continue to adopt the practice of extra pay for extra work that they will approach the problem objectively and secure adequate data to make sound judgments possible.

A New Approach to Merit

WARREN HIMMELBERGER

MUCH has been written in the past half century about merit rating and merit pay. The average taxpayer and businessman favor paying teachers according to merit because they think their taxes will be less. The average teacher opposes having his salary tied to merit ratings because he does not have confidence that the rating will be fair and equitable.

Recently, in a community where men receive \$400 more than women teachers at maximum salary, the chairman of the school board opposed equal pay for women because he felt that economic conditions make it necessary to pay a premium to men teachers. He added, however, that if the teaching staff accepted the principle of merit as a basis for salaries, he would then favor the equal-pay principle for women. Since women are in a majority on public school staffs, it is not surprising to find that teachers overwhelmingly oppose merit pay, for what assurances would women teachers have that sex would not be one of the criteria for deciding who should receive merit raises?

The problem is a complex one. One factor is that teachers' salaries are less than half the average earnings of 17 other professions,¹ as reported in the *NEA Research Bulletin* of May 1960, pages 49-55. Even the salaries of women in the 17 other professions were over 25 per cent higher than the average salaries of women teachers (comparing all women who had completed four or more years of college, worked at least 27 weeks, and earned at least \$1500 a year). Another side of the problem is the method of rating a professional person. Of the 17 other major professions listed in the footnote, how many of these professions have a system of merit rating for determining salaries?

One way to approach this problem of merit is to set up rigid safeguards to protect teachers from arbitrary ratings which may be unfair to certain groups of teachers. These safeguards can be based on the assumptions that there are approximately as many meritorious women teachers as there are meritorious men teachers; as many meritorious first-grade teachers as meritorious high-school teachers; and as many meritorious English teachers as meritorious science teachers. The safeguards must

¹ Included are architects, chemists, clergymen, dentists, dietitians, engineers, foresters, conservationists, lawyers, judges, librarians, natural scientists, optometrists, osteopaths, pharmacists, physicians, surgeons, social and welfare workers, social scientists, and veterinarians.

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state clearly that, within a reasonable margin, if a certain percentage of men teachers receive merit ratings, a similar percentage of women teachers will receive merit ratings; if a certain percentage of high-school teachers receive merit ratings, a similar percentage of elementary teachers will receive merit ratings; if a certain percentage of science teachers receive merit ratings, a similar percentage of English teachers will receive merit ratings.

By experimental rating for several years, the percentage of meritorious teachers may be determined in a school system. This percentage may vary from year to year and from system to system, but it will serve to show the staff and the school board what to expect. Then, knowing what to expect, the teachers and school board should write into the merit-rating program the safeguards against discrimination.

In any evaluation, a good rating instrument is needed. A good example of a rating scale, currently being used in Natick, Massachusetts, appears on the next 2 pages, below. In teacher evaluation, these points should be noted:

1. Evaluation or merit rating can never work if it is a subterfuge for economy.
2. It should become the means for rewarding all teachers who exhibit the qualities of good teaching to a satisfactory degree.
3. It should not be limited to a certain grade level.
4. Benefits should not be limited to a certain percentage of the staff each year.
5. It can be useful in determining promotions of teachers.
6. It can be invaluable in assisting teachers to improve their teaching.

There is another safeguard which should be discussed. This is the possibility that the state legislatures may amend state laws to protect teachers under merit-pay systems from discrimination because of sex, grade level, or subject matter area. School boards could be required to show that they have rated the various categories of teachers fairly according to percentage breakdowns by sex, grade level, and subject matter area.

Rating scales have proved to be inadequate in the past because of the subjectivity basic to personal judgment. As yet there is no widely accepted definition of teacher competence. Perhaps by introducing the idea of more rigid rules and emphasizing safeguards against discrimination, a pattern can be evolved which will be suitable to both taxpayer and teacher in this area of professional pay in our schools.

5 4 3 2 1 X

B. PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS

- | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Considerate of others — students and colleagues. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Displays the refinement and character expected of the professional person. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Uses tact in his dealings with persons within and without the profession. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Uses the English language well (oral and written). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Has poise and self-control. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Has interests outside of the profession which contribute to his effectiveness as a teacher. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

C. PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDE

- | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Has high standards of ethics in his dealings with the profession, the parents, and the pupils. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Displays a willingness and enthusiasm to work for the over-all good of the school. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Is willing to experiment with new techniques and ideas which appear to have promise. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Seeks ways of improving his ability and teaching effectiveness by professional study. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Works co-operatively with fellow teachers and administrators. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Is prompt and accurate in handling records and reports. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Is reliable and conscientious in adhering to the school's time schedule. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Belongs to and takes active part in professional organizations. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(Additional comments)

Signed.....

Recent Growth Patterns of Accreditation of Secondary Schools by the Regional Accrediting Associations

ELLSWORTH SHELDON STATLER

ACCREDITATION of secondary schools by the regional accrediting association has experienced both horizontal and vertical growth within the recent period, 1949-1960. The *horizontal* extension of the development is exemplified by an ever increasing number of secondary schools being accredited by four of the six regional accrediting associations and by an increasing number of states and associations who are entering into the formal process of school recognition known as *accreditation*. Vertical growth of regional accreditation is discernible in the increasing levels of education that are being accredited by these associations.

The horizontal growth has been an on-going trend of more than a half-century; the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools began accreditation of secondary educational institutions in 1906 followed by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1912, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools in 1918 and the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1923. While the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has had member schools, they have not formally accredited secondary schools although they have been attempting to arrive at the requisite criteria or standards since 1954. California's high schools are not accredited by the Western College Association (recognition group for higher institutions in the state) and may be said to be the only state whose high schools are not regionally recognized.

Today, therefore, the secondary schools of only seven states are beyond the regional fold of accreditation and regional accreditation has grown in recent years to embrace the armed services dependency schools by the North Central Association; American Secondary Schools in Latin American states by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and American Schools in Switzerland, the Panama Canal Zone, Puerto Rico and the District of Columbia by the Middle States Association.

Table 1 shows the growth pattern of regional accreditation by secondary organizations during the period 1949-1960. The data has been compiled by the investigator from the annual reports of secondary-school

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commissions and correspondence from the four regional associations which currently accredit secondary schools. The Southern Association comprised of twelve states and some schools in Latin America has had the greatest growth during the period. Part of this phenomenal expansion in numbers of accredited secondary schools, 73.88 per cent, is explainable by the fact that in 1958 the Association formally listed qualified Negro schools as accredited rather than merely approved as previously done.

TABLE 1. Growth Pattern of Accreditation

Year	<i>Numbers of Schools Accredited by Associations</i>				
	<i>North Central</i>	<i>North- west</i>	<i>Middle States</i>	<i>Southern States</i>	<i>Totals</i>
1949.....	3,047	574	761	1,386	5,768
1950.....	3,130	587	770	1,422	5,909
1951.....	3,089	592	768	1,472	5,921
1952.....	3,130	602	777	1,514	6,023
1953.....	3,158	512	853	1,579	6,102
1954.....	3,227	626	813	1,648	6,314
1955.....	3,277	640	836	1,719	6,472
1956.....	3,343	637	848	1,790	6,618
1957.....	3,398	642	906	1,852	6,798
1958.....	3,416	653	868	2,258	7,195
1959.....	3,474	663	925	2,322	7,384
1960.....	3,580	673	968	2,410	7,631
<i>Percentage of increase</i>					
1949-1960.....	17.49	17.25	27.20	73.88	32.29

Despite the direct factor of integration of listing, the Southern Association's growth during the fifth decade of this century has been spectacular as compared to the others. An indirect factor may have contributed to this growth. The concept "separate but equal" as a policy regarding the apartheid in our Southern educational systems may have exercised a counteracting force in that when many Negro schools appeared to be better in many respects, as compared to white institutions, the competitive counteraction caused an upgrading of white schools. Hence improved quality of education resulted in increased accession of schools into the accredited listing. Another possibility is that the increased growth followed on the heels of the highly significant Southern Study,¹ the research of which stimulated action and growth. Still another stimulus may have been part of an entire chain reaction—the renaissance in public education in the southern states growing out of the stimulating activity of the work of the General Education Board which was reaping with full swath by the fifties.

The writer is wont to depart to affirm that, as a result of his entire study, the Southern Association would appear to be the most research-

¹ Jenkins, Frank C., et al. *Cooperative Study for the Improvement of Education*. The Southern Association. 1946.

*mind*ed accrediting group and the one which has given the greatest emphasis in the process of assisting the local school community in picking itself up by its bootstraps, coming to grips with local educational necessity and bringing about improved educational experiences for youth. Not only does the report of the Southern Study support this contention, but also, in practice, the use of *action-research* methods in the recommended year-long school-community self-study prerequisite to application of the *Evaluative Criteria* by the visiting evaluation committees.² Such activity is a type of research which involves an entire community. Moreover, this evaluation is now required for initial accreditation of secondary schools in the eleven member states of the Southern Association as well as for subsequent and continued accreditation. This, of course, leads directly to the premise that growth is healthy and based upon comprehensive research techniques rather than assumed quality based upon mere judgment. Be it further submitted that "re-evaluation," periodically, preserves healthy organic health for the Association.

It is with similar gravity that the Middle States Association practice provides for healthy growth and maintenance of its organic strength. This Association, whose basic membership encompasses five states, has the second highest though less spectacular growth. It too requires a local school to be evaluated by application of the *Criteria* for initial and continued accreditation of a member secondary institution.

Growth in numbers of accredited secondary schools has been slower in the sprawling North Central Association whose basic membership is within the confines of twenty states—not always *North* nor always *Central*—and slowest in the seven state Northwest Association. The former has part of its growth stemming from accredited recognition of overseas dependency schools and is 17.49 per cent while the latter, Northwest organization, has experienced a 17.25 per cent growth within the decade 1949-1959. It is highly significant to point out that in both of these associations, use of the *Evaluative Criteria* is only recommended and is integral with neither initial nor continued accreditation of secondary schools. One leader of the North Central Association has informed the writer that application of the *Evaluative Criteria* as a requisite for membership is overly time-consuming and expensive. However, it is possible to hypothesize that recent growth of the North Central membership could have been enhanced by greater use of the *Criteria*.

Mathews reported use of the *Evaluative Criteria* among regional associations for the years 1950-1956.³ The present investigator computed the percentages from Mathews' data and they are as follows:

² Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria*. Washington: Cooperative Study, 1950. The name of the study has been changed to the National Study of Secondary-School Evaluation, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C. The 1960 edition became available July 1, 1960.

³ Mathews, Roderic D. "Reactions of Administrators After Evaluation with Materials Developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXXII, No. 238, May 1958, p. 8.

Percentage of Accredited Secondary Schools Evaluated, 1950-56

North Central Association	20.7
Southern Association	68.6
Middle States Association	71.4
Northwest Association	15.6

These percentages provide further credence for the writer's assumption; preponderate percentages attributable to the Middle States and Southern Associations result from established policy of initial and periodic comprehensive evaluation and this policy has contributed to a healthy growth in these accrediting associations.

Of course, it could be submitted that both the Northwest Association and its *godparent*, the North Central Association, had earlier heavy growth which slowed during the decade of increased school consolidation. Consolidation would tend to reduce apparent growth because over-all numbers of high schools decrease. On the other hand, consolidations should contribute to accredited membership because the resulting schools have requisite strengths. Despite these phenomena, Ohio has reduced its high schools with pupil populations of one hundred or fewer in the upper four grades by 23.5 per cent between 1957 and 1959, while increase in the state's list of North Central Association accredited high schools has increased little more than one per cent during the same period.

The vertical trend in regional accreditation is interesting phenomena. Early regional accreditation was, by and large, that of higher institutions and grew downward to embrace the secondary school. It is to be remembered that the New England and Western Associations have accredited higher institutions and that the former is moving vertically to accredit secondary schools, if private school membership and concepts of autonomy will allow. But the vertical growth downward continues.

The most significant vertical movement in accreditation has been into the accreditation of the junior high schools by the Southern Association, 1954, as well as the more recent movement toward elementary-school accreditation and now development of standards or criteria for system-wide evaluation. While *tremors* have been felt in some activities of the North Central Association, no *quaking* movement into junior high-school accreditation seems imminent.⁴ There is practically no evidence of such movement in the remaining organizations. This condition obtains, perhaps, because the junior high-school program is as yet not *standardized*—or some might impute, *strangleized*—by the so-called Carnegie unit. Perhaps the ultimate recognition which may stem from the latest report of James Bryant Conant may provide the requisite stimulation.⁵ Only the Southern Association seems to be considering elementary and system-wide evaluation. Their *frontier* activity accepts the premise that all levels of education are important and the ultimate strength of a chain or total

⁴ "N.C.A. May Expand to Junior High Schools." *Today*, IV, No. 1, May 1959, p. 3.

⁵ Conant, James Bryant. *A Memorandum to School Boards: Education in the Junior High-School Years*. Princeton: Educational Testing Service. 1960.

institution is equal only to that of its weakest link. It becomes apparent also, from the literature available, that the Southern movement is based upon research.

Current pilot studies with regard to system-wide evaluation will help lead the way to established criteria for system-wide accreditation—and improvement of education. Such qualitative approaches to the problems of education of society's youth seems a far cry and a noble movement from the original quantitative approach to accreditation. To the extent that the associations can develop and utilize qualitative standards for evaluation and accreditation will the process continue improvement—or it may be to the extent to which sound research may produce the accurate quantification of quality for easy objective measurement for evaluation that quality will be achieved. The trend to qualitative standards has been enhanced by the Middle States' complete abdication of collateral quantitative standards during recent years as well as similar but less significant efforts of the Southern Association. The North Central and Northwest Associations hold to many quantitative measures and current North Central movement into use of its 1960 secondary standards and no more significant use of the *Evaluative Criteria* bespeaks a reactionary trend to qualitative approaches to accreditation. Perhaps to the extent that the *Criteria*, brainchild of the cooperative movement among Associations in the 1930's, is used will growth in accreditation of secondary schools be qualitative and healthy.

Lest the conclusion be drawn that the accreditation movement is complete and that all secondary schools will soon find their names ensconced on the accredited lists, Table 2 is submitted to indicate the contrary. This tabulation results from the writer's survey⁶ of the forty-four states within the regional *folds* to which thirty-one state departments of education submitted the data. It can be noted that barely one third of the secondary schools in the total number of states are regionally accredited. Moreover, it can be assumed that only one third can measure up to association standards for accreditation—it would, therefore, seem that if these standards are valid for judgment, the quality of education in some two thirds of the high schools falls short of optimal levels. The data affords another inference; maintenance of quality education is not the problem of any particular region or state—populous or sparsely peopled commonwealth. It is a national problem.

CONCLUSIONS

The foregoing data indicates the following:

1. Regional accreditation of secondary schools continues to show horizontal as well as vertical growth.

⁶ Statler, Ellsworth Sheldon. *An Analysis of Current Secondary-School Standards of State Agencies and Regional Accrediting Associations*. Columbus: The Ohio State University, Ph.D. dissertation. 1960.

TABLE 2. Proportion of Schools Regionally Accredited in Thirty-one Member States of Four Regions

State	No. Second- ary Schools	No. Region- ally Accred- ited	%	State	No. Second- ary Schools	No. Region- ally Accred- ited	%
Alabama	213	152	71.36	Nevada	34	20	58.82
Alaska	43	18	41.86	New Jersey-No's not given-% was	82.00
Arizona	94	60	63.82	New Mexico	195	49	25.12
California* . .	860	126	14.65	N. Carolina	863	163	18.88
Colorado	284	99	34.85	North Dakota . . .	233	67	28.75
Delaware	68	29	42.64	Ohio	1113	507	45.55
Florida	330	240	72.72	Oklahoma	665	170	25.56
Georgia	464	256	55.17	Oregon	219	159	72.60
Idaho	134	98	73.13	Pennsylvania	1240	150	12.09
Indiana	680	200	29.41	S. Carolina	430	111	25.81
Kansas	704	222	31.53	South Dakota . . .	282	81	28.72
Kentucky	533	142	26.64	Texas	1195	455	38.07
Maryland	313	108	35.64	Washington	299	157	52.50
Michigan	682	282	41.34	W. Virginia	367	177	48.22
Missouri	553	185	33.45	Wyoming	83	35	42.16
Montana	212	121	57.07				

Total Secondary Schools 13,385

Total Regionally Accredited 4,639

Total per cent of Schools Accredited by Regional Associations 34.66

*California accredited schools in this case are those recognized by the state principals' association.

2. Growth within the 1949-1960 period shows tremendous horizontal growth in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, less, but appreciable growth in the Middle States Association and continued though less spectacular growth in the North Central and Northwest Associations.

3. The phenomenal growth in the Southern Association may be explainable because of its apparent orientation to extensive research techniques.

4. Both the Middle States Association and Southern Association make the use of the *Evaluative Criteria* an integral activity consonant with initial and continued accreditation. This makes for healthy growth.

5. Vertical growth in accreditation is extremely evident in the Southern Association and of no significance in the other associations with the exception of the New England Association's overtures or efforts to accredit high schools. The Southern processes include junior high-school accreditation and movement toward elementary levels and efforts to make system-wide accreditation the pattern.

6. There is much to be done; slightly more than one third of the secondary schools in thirty-one states merit accreditation by the four regional associations which currently have the standards for evaluation.

Finally, such study seems to show that while our nation lacks, in the central government, a guiding force lodged for the promotion of sound educational practice, regional associations may serve to take the place of such an agency. To the extent that regional policy is above and beyond

the dictates of individual state political folly will it be able to promote the quality of education that state policy may tend to hinder. One association, the Middle States, assumes that it has this requisite position with reference to the state governments. Examination of organization of the other associations shows considerable inter-locking direction so that regional policy may be negated—or a state official may hold regional standards as a level of attainment above and beyond those minimums established by his state. So often state minimums become maximums. To the extent that regional policy and standards are based upon valid research, then will these promote a better educational opportunity for American youth.

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Education in Conservative Key: The Proposals of Dr. Conant

THEODORE BRAMELD

THE most quoted educator in the United States today is James Bryant Conant. His pronouncements on the state of secondary education are accepted with almost abject obeisance not only by vast numbers of laymen but by the great majority of teachers and school administrators. The appearance of his new report on the junior high schools is sure to receive much the same kind of acclaim as his *The American High School Today*, which, less than two years ago, made the best-seller lists—an almost unheard of accomplishment by a book on public education.

Within minority circles of our more theoretical and sophisticated students of education, however, Dr. Conant's views are often subjected to sharp questions. This being so, it is remarkable that few if any of these dissents have touched the wider public. What little has been written of a critical nature is confined to professional journals, and what is said analytically is rarely listened to by anyone except others of like mind. This is most unfortunate. Dr. Conant's potently influential views demand searching inspection by those substantial sections of the citizenry who profess genuine concern for the welfare of perhaps the greatest of all achievements of American democracy—its free public schools.

I should like to attempt this kind of inspection from the vantage point of my own field, educational philosophy. The task is not easy to accomplish, if only because the former President of Harvard University has never in his several books come to grips with the philosophic underpinnings of education. Indeed, as far back as 1949, when he published his *Education in a Divided World* (the book most fully outlining the ideas which he has since elaborated but modified only meagerly), Conant asserted that the validity of his propositions "must be tested not in terms of abstract educational theory but with reference to the state of affairs in the United States. . . ."

ESSENTIALIST ORIENTATION

Thus, if any categories of educational theory apply to Conant, eclecticism in one sense is most appropriate. His views and proposals are such a mixture of diverse theories that one suspects him of being a progressive

This article is taken from a chapter in Dr. Brameld's book, *Education for the Emerging Age*, which was published by Harper & Bros. early in 1961. Permission was granted by the publisher of the book containing this article, the *Teachers College Record*, which published this in the December 1960 issue (pages 232-41), and the author who is Professor of Educational Philosophy, School of Education, Boston University.

educator in one paragraph and something different in another. Nevertheless, I believe it is possible to demonstrate that he is primarily an educational conservator whose assumptions are accordingly closer to those of the essentialist theory than to those of any other. This theory, stripped to its bare bones, centers in the doctrine that the main purpose of education is to reinforce and perpetuate the social heritage.

As such, and with full regard for the sincerity of his dedication to the cause of education, the largest share of Conant's proposals not only prove to be unsuitable to the kind of culture in which we live, but they become a roadblock in the path of imperative reconstruction. For with the generous backing of the powerful Carnegie Corporation, he has convinced vast audiences that no important changes are needed at all. His most "radical" proposal is to reduce the number of small high schools in favor of consolidated ones. "Aside from this important change," he frankly declares, "I believe no radical alteration in the basic pattern of education is necessary in order to improve our public high schools." To be assured by the former president of our greatest university that nothing is seriously wrong and most things quite all right with American education is dangerously soporific at the precise time when critical alertness on the part of citizens is more imperative than in any period since the founding of the public-school system.

"COMPREHENSIVE" HIGH SCHOOLS

The "relatively minor changes" advocated by Conant center in secondary education. Particularly does he admire the "comprehensive high school," which accommodates students of a wide range of abilities and backgrounds. Vocational and academic courses are both included. The former consist of training for secretarial, clerical, mechanical, and agricultural positions after graduation, and are intended mainly for those who intend no further education. The latter are of two kinds—a required program of general education for all and an elective sequence tailored to the "academically talented."

The conservative quality of Conant's outlook begins to appear when we look at his curriculum of general education. It consists of four years of English, three or four years of social studies (including two years of history and one on American problems or American government), one year of mathematics (algebra or general mathematics), and at least one year of science, preferably biology or general physical science.

Millions of us who have graduated from run-of-the-mill American high schools any time in the past quarter-century or more have experienced much the same type of curriculum, with the possible exception of the senior social studies course. Even this course, however, has been provided by many high schools for a fairly long time.

The electives in which Conant is most interested are intended for the fifteen per cent adjudged to be academically talented. Four years of mathematics, four years of one foreign language, and three years of science are the major subjects. Art and music are also mentioned but

with much less emphasis, as is physical education. The recommendation of four years of one foreign language rather than the usual two years, sometimes in two different languages, is one of his better recommendations in so far as it assures greater facility than is now typical. But even this recommendation is open to more questions than we are led to suspect from his presentation, as are most of his recommendations for the senior high school. I return to these questions in a moment.

THE EDUCATIONAL PATTERN

First, a comment or two about other phases of education. The junior high school appears mainly in need of more of the same things that it is usually doing already—reading, writing, computation, social studies, science, art and music, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education. But Conant also suggests that such subjects as algebra and foreign language be reintroduced in about the eighth grade as further preparation for senior high school and college. The need to modify the “child-centered” approach on the junior level with more of a “subject-centered” approach is thus a consequence that he considers desirable, a modification quite harmonious with essentialist predilections.¹

What of Conant's views on the organization and control of education? Here, too, he is much more conservative than liberal. He condones the tradition of decentralization and local control with little more reason than that it is a “thoroughly sound” tradition that he hopes will remain unchanged. Indeed, the National Youth Administration of the 1930's was a dire “threat” that we must never repeat.

Even federal aid to education is not unequivocally endorsed. If anything, Conant has become more equivocal since *Education in a Divided World*, where some passages clearly support Federal aid at least for the poorer states. But in *The Child, the Parent, and State*, published a decade later, he stresses more heavily the need for individual states to put “their own financial houses in order,” leaving it to the reader finally to decide between state and Federal aid.

As for administration of the public schools, he apparently accepts the traditional line-staff structure—at least by default. Certainly at no time does he raise any critical questions about it or about the power structure of education as a whole. In *The American High School Today*, he does state twice within five pages that the “successful” operation of a high school depends upon three requisites: first, a school board of “devoted” citizens; second, a “first-rate” superintendent; and third, a “good” principal—none of these three value adjectives ever being delineated. In neither

¹ This article was completed before Dr. Conant's full report on the junior high school was available. (See *Recommendations for Education in the Junior High School Years*.) No major alterations in my evaluation of Dr. Conant's position are called for in the light of this report. As he himself states: “The recommendations in this report, like those of my first report, are purposely conservative . . .” although he also, of course, wishes us to consider “new ideas.”

passage, moreover, does it once occur to him even to hint that possibly "successful" operation depends also upon the active participation of parents and, above all, of the teaching faculty.

WHERE THE WORLD CRISIS?

I select four major defects in Conant's educational thought. In analyzing them, I propose to borrow freely from his several books on education, while concentrating with him on the secondary school.

The first defect embraces, directly or indirectly, each of the others. The Conant plan for the high school fails to provide for anything like the kind of curriculum now demanded by our "divided world." While recognizing in various writings the troubled nature of our period of civilization, the only formal provision for dealing with it systematically is in the senior year through a required course on "American problems." Note, however, that even here no mention is made of the relations of American to international problems, presumably because of dissatisfaction by many of his informants with present courses in world history. Note, too, that even here a choice is permitted, with the consequence that the alternative course in American government could easily be taught so as to avoid "problems" altogether.

Nor is Conant sure that social studies should be required for all four years. Three might be enough, two of them in history. Thus, assuming as generously as possible that the history courses are to be taught in such a way as to throw light upon the crucial issues of our day, the student receives his diploma with a maximum of three sixteenths of his entire high-school education directly devoted to these issues. In fact, the proportion will usually be one sixteenth or even less, not only because history courses are rarely taught as a diagnostic or functional resource, but because American government is more safely and easily treated in a purely descriptive and expository fashion than in terms of the complex of controversies which, in fact, it generates.

But if one grants, as Conant himself at moments grants, that we live in a world where complacency is above all to be avoided—where, indeed, "foreign policy requires at least as much study" as "internal political and social history"—then the social studies should occupy a much more strategic place in the curriculum than he proposes. Problems of human existence, extending all the way from the personal to the planetary, should galvanize the treatment of all other subjects—not only history, but science and language as well.

For Conant to assert that "Formal study of . . . economics, political theory, psychology, sociology . . . must be reserved for college work and probably restricted to only certain types of colleges . . ." is thus to abrogate the first responsibility of secondary education. Granting that concentration and sophistication of study should markedly increase on the college level, why is formal treatment of these fields less appropriate in

the high school than formal study of mathematics or science? I contend, on the contrary, that it is still more appropriate. Many young people will never again have opportunity, *under expert guidance*, to deal with matters that are of far more intrinsic and urgent concern to them than any others that they shall have to confront as they move rapidly up to the plane of citizenship and parenthood.

COMPARTMENTALIZATION

A second defect stems from the first. Conant supports a curriculum structure that almost totally disregards recent psychological and sociological research as to the interrelated character of human experience. He thus ignores learning as a major dimension of such experience. Although a natural scientist, Conant does not seem to have perceived that the "field theory" now dominant in physics is increasingly recognized by advanced students of the behavioral sciences as comparably appropriate to the study of man.

The structure he endorses reflects, on the contrary, the highly atomistic and mechanistic premises of a Newtonian philosophy of science—a philosophy that continues to permeate psychology and other human sciences long after it would, were these sciences (or, rather, their conventional practitioners) to catch up with the natural sciences. In everyday language, Conant's curriculum, like that in the vast majority of high schools today, reminds one of an egg crate—a boxed-in series of cubicles divided from each other by artificial walls.

In one important respect, to be sure, his structure points in a modern direction. In his advocacy of the comprehensive high school, Conant opposes the divisive, constrictive proposals of Admiral Rickover and others of like persuasion. Interestingly, he refers to those who want to copy the class-layered European model of secondary education as "radical reformers," although they are the antithesis of radical in any precise sense. Nevertheless, despite his democratic stand on this paramount issue, his curriculum consists, as does that of the "radical reformers" themselves, of discrete bodies of subject matter with no detectable awareness of how or why these might be interfused so as to invigorate and strengthen one another.

In another respect, moreover, Conant moves back toward an even more atomistic curriculum than currently prevails. In order to provide room for the election of music, art, and practical courses, he proposes that the number of periods per day be increased from six to seven or eight, even though this means a still shorter daily period for each subject. The effect, of course, is to subdivide the learner's time into still more egg-crate cubicles. No hint of a suggestion is anywhere to be found that the number of periods per day ought to be *reduced* rather than increased—that the need is for larger rather than smaller blocks of learning through integrated, "field" approaches to the problems of human beings.

RATIONALE: ABSENT!

A third cluster of difficulties emerges from Conant's required courses for all students. I have already questioned his provisions for the social studies. Aside from the fact that their importance is never compared with that of other general requirements, one may ask why no more reason is given for permitting algebra or general mathematics, biology or general physical science, than it is for American problems or American government.

Surely it is evident without argument that the educational consequences of algebra are not identical with those of general mathematics. Since the former is only a single division of the latter, the average student's facility in utilizing mathematics as a practical tool (and remember that this requirement is intended for *all* students enrolled in the comprehensive high school) is accordingly circumscribed. As a matter of fact, it is difficult to understand why Conant recommends algebra as an alternative at all. Since no reason is offered that might justify it on the senior high-school level, much less on the junior high-school level, shall we then assume as essentialists do that it is somehow good for the training of the mind because tradition says it is? The question of what kind of mathematics is most needed by the average citizen, or how mathematics may be effectively related to other studies in the high school, is entirely avoided.

The same puzzlement results from the common requirement in science. On what ground is biology ever to be preferred for the typical student to general physical science? If one purpose of general education is to provide everyone with broad scientific knowledge of the natural world, how can biology—however important it is as a division of the natural sciences—be regarded as of comparable value to the much more inclusive course? If it is not so regarded, then what is the rationale for permitting it as an equivalent at all?

As for the requirement of four years of English, Conant insists that about half the time should be devoted to English composition. Here again, a justification for such an allocation is never clearly stated. No one, of course, denies that ample practice in writing is desirable, but why is no allocation of time provided for ample practice in speaking? Nor does Conant ever inquire whether English can be effectively taught so long as composition, speaking, foreign language, or any other of the communication arts is divorced from the social studies, from the natural sciences, and from all remaining areas of a thoroughly integrated high-school education.

One may be concerned, finally, not merely for what Conant includes in his general requirements, but equally for what he does not include. Art and music, for example, are "urged" as electives, but nowhere in *The American High School Today* does he require even one general course embracing the major literary, graphic, musical, and other arts.

To be sure, in his 1949 volume he devotes a whole chapter to the humanities in general education; their minimization ten years later is therefore all the more conspicuous. Yet even in that earlier volume, Conant's conception is restricted largely to a study of the classical past. Indeed, unless in the most tangential fashion, no consideration is given anywhere in his writings to the cultural role that the arts inevitably play in the crisis of our age—a role that relates them by infinite strands to comparable roles of both the physical sciences and the sciences of man.

The possibility, moreover, that religions may be studied in public general education, not in a sectarian sense but as great cultural institutions deserving of the same respectful but critical attention as all other institutions, is never weighed as a corrective to the currently artificial if not evasive policies on this matter that Conant himself seems to endorse. Equally, the possibility that philosophy has a place in the humanities of the modern secondary school is dismissed along with economics and related formal studies. Actually, ethics has already been demonstrated by a few experimental institutions to provide fruitful experiences in learning by adolescents. Logic, too, if vitally taught as the prime instrument of critical thinking, could well prove itself to be far more rewarding in junior or senior general education than any course in algebra.

CONANT ON THE TALENTED

Finally, Conant is deeply concerned with the academically talented minority—so much so that one wonders at times whether it is not his *chief* concern. At any rate, his insistence that most high schools fail to lift this minority to the levels of achievement of which it is capable is undoubtedly correct.

When, however, we recall his program to effect such an objective, we ought to be skeptical indeed. Why, for example, does Conant assume that four years of mathematics and four years of a foreign language are the primary measures of academic talent? (We recall that he also proposes three years of science for this group.) If it is because standardized tests of ability are geared to these two fields, then one may ask whether it is not the standardized tests—themselves largely based upon mechanistic psychologies of learning—that should first be questioned. Yet, Conant is unequivocal in his delimitation: "If the counselor becomes convinced that a student is having difficulty with one or the other subject (mathematics or foreign language), he should then decide the student in question is not academically talented."

This is an incredible statement. Are we then to infer that there is no such thing as academic talent in the arts—in music, painting, sculpture, the dance, drama, or literature? Is there no such thing as academic talent in the human sciences—in economics, political science, psychology, sociology, history? Conant cannot, of course, deny that there is, and it is true that the sharply bounded provisions for these areas in his conventional curriculum do not encourage the discovery of whatever such talents are

potential in them. The fault here lies not in the promise inherent in able young people, but in the recommended curriculum—a vicious circle of constriction upon the great range of talents needed by the world of this and the next generation. Yet Conant actually suggests that it is only from the academically talented *as he defines them* that “will come the future professional men and women.”

To provide strong sequences in the three fields of mathematics, science, and foreign language is, of course, legitimate. Certainly we need more scientists and engineers, and Conant's extended discussion of our competition with Russia leads one to suspect that his principal motivation here reflects the strong pressures upon American education to engage more vigorously in that competition. My own view, however, is that, even on this premise, equally strong sequences should be provided in both the arts and the sciences of man—that the strength of American democracy depends in the long run at least equally upon them. All sequences, moreover, should be integrated with the main stream of an organic program of general education. To study nuclear physics, for example, with no explicit regard for its dangers and promises to the future of mankind is to encourage the sort of social irresponsibility against which many nuclear physicists have themselves, since Hiroshima, bitterly rebelled. Students as well as teachers of this subject have an obligation not only to themselves, but also to those of their fellows who do not study it—an obligation that requires constant opportunity for give and take in learning among students and teachers from many subjects.

Additional doubts remain. By virtually compelling the academically talented minority into elective sequences of mathematics, science, and foreign language beginning in the freshman year, students fourteen and fifteen years of age are likely to be guided prematurely toward the kind of career for which these subjects, especially the first two, are directly beneficial. Whether further guidance and further maturation on the part of the students might develop talents, interests, and values in quite different directions is, therefore, much more difficult to determine than if the range of electives were wider and more flexible.

This is not to say that some talented students, even at fourteen, may not be ready and eager to begin intensive study in one or more of Conant's three main elective subjects. Even for some of these, however, it is not at all self-evident that the foreign language sequence is to be compared in worth with the other two. A student clearly bound for a field like engineering may benefit greatly by the mathematics-science sequence without necessarily benefiting in any comparable way from four years' study of a foreign tongue. On the other hand, a student whose gifts unmistakably point in the direction of comparative literature, let us say, may gain tremendously from foreign language study but only in meager ways from the heavy mathematics-science sequence.

Conant, to be sure, makes much of the importance of facility in foreign languages for an age of increasing intercourse among world cultures. I do not deny, other things being equal, that such facility is advantageous.

The first question that confronts us, however, in remaking the curriculum is: *What is most important?* The answer to this question requires us to balance competing values and thus competing demands for their fulfillment. To satisfy some educational demands in any adequate way, others cannot equally be satisfied. And in the perspective of our age, we have every reason to wonder whether the vast total of curriculum time (at least twenty per cent) earmarked by Conant for foreign language study could not, for many of the ablest minority, be devoted much more rewardingly to other matters—for example, the explosive problem of the survival of the human race itself.

In further support of this demur, we should not overlook the remarkable innovations now well under way in the technology of language learning. Thus, if an individual arrives at a point in his career when Russian, Spanish, Chinese, or any one of many other languages has become important to him (Is he likely to know at the age of fourteen which of these it will be?), we now find that he can, given fair intelligence and competent instruction with new tools of communication such as tape recording, acquire facility very much faster than by any program of abbreviated periods spread across four years.

SOME POSITIVE POINTS

Any full consideration of Conant's views would carry us a good deal further. They include a number of commendable features that I may only mention.

Perhaps the most noteworthy is his proposal to abolish high schools with less than one hundred students in the graduating class by combining them into larger ones, his purpose being, of course, to improve quality. The trend in American life toward integration and interdependence is supported here, though at the cost of some strain to an equally vehement belief in decentralization and local control. Again, in his *Education and Liberty* (1953), he took a forthright stand in opposition both to the increase of private secondary schools and to any public funds for their support. Even earlier, while still President of Harvard, his support of academic freedom was more outspoken than that of some liberals—a phenomenon not uncommon among essentialist educators devoted to the traditions of American democracy.

More specifically, Conant offers a variety of suggestions that support modern trends. He wants to see more counselors in the junior and senior high schools. He urges summer programs both for deficient and able students (though he rejects the idea now growing on the educational frontier that the whole conventional schedule should be overhauled to include all students in a year-round plan). He would provide many more terminal junior or community colleges of two years' duration (though he never considers whether or not a more defensible arrangement for the future might be four-year junior colleges, beginning with the present high-school junior year). He favors home rooms in which students remain together for three or four years "to develop a sense of community

interest and to have practice in a small way in representative government" by electing representatives to the student council (though no attention is given to opportunities for teacher-pupil planning of the curriculum itself).

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Particular comment is called for as to the proposed vocational curriculum. Conant's opposition on democratic grounds to district vocational schools is so admirably emphatic that he wishes to provide industrial and other training even in suburban high schools. Nevertheless, that his image of the vocational program is highly conservative may be inferred from statements such as this: "When opportunities for employment in a given trade no longer exist within the community, the training program in that field should be dropped." How can we interpret such a recommendation if not as concession to the local economic *status quo*? Its effect is to discourage students from considering vocations farther afield that might be more congenial to their interests and hopes. Likewise, it fails to take into account the fluidity and mobility of occupational opportunities in the nation as a whole.

Moreover, as is true of the rest of his curriculum, Conant never asks how the vocational program may be continually and functionally related to more academic studies, the role of trade unions in American democracy being a case in point. His provision for "work experience" by which vocational training is tied to community practice could provide some of this relationship; but the miseducative consequences of work experience when guided, as it often is, by instructors insensitive to and uninformed about the cultural milieu of economic life are never assessed.

ESSENTIALISM REDIVIVUS

We return in conclusion to the judgment that, granting many qualifications, Conant expresses the essentialist orientation toward education. Indeed, despite his doubts about the value of philosophic approaches to education, he occasionally recognizes their importance in terms that cause one to wonder just what his attitude toward them really is. Not only does he plead with the citizen "to re-examine his own presuppositions"; quite often he unmistakably reveals his own most pervasive ones.

His economic presuppositions are a good example. The school, of course, should "promote the social and political ideals necessary for the harmonious operation of an economic system based on private ownership and the profit motive. . . ." "Granted private ownership and the profit motive (which have been sneered at in certain circles, but for which I believe there is no substitute for this nation), the question (is) how best to keep our society truly competitive and moving toward a greater degree of equality of opportunity. . . ."

Again, he implies agreement with the essentialist-tempered ontological belief of "all but a very small number of honest and intelligent citizens" that "the universe is somehow so constructed that a sane individual's

acts are subject to moral judgments under all circumstances and under all conditions."

Frequently he offers assertions that are rhetorically pleasant to read but lack, as essentialist pronouncements often lack, any kind of clear cultural context. Here is a sample: "A climate of opinion must be created which brings forth in each young person a strong desire to do his or her best in school. Then the schools must, in turn, provide the challenging courses and provide a variety so that not only the academically talented student but every student will feel his studies are worth while."

Conant's advocacy of "ability grouping" (for some elusive reason he would not require it for the senior American problems course) exemplifies just this lack of cultural context. For, while he concedes that this device is "a highly controversial subject," and while he chooses to side without explanation against those "competent teachers who argued vigorously for heterogeneous grouping in all classes," at no time does he answer one of the most pervasive and probably the most serious of all objections to homogeneous grouping. This objection has nothing to do with the learning of subject matter; rather, it has to do with the concomitant learning of attitudes—of feelings of superiority and inferiority, of group divisiveness, which it is a major purpose of the comprehensive high school to prevent.

The author of *The American High School Today* declares that he is not offering a "blueprint of an ideal high school" because conditions and needs vary too much from area to area. This recognition of our pluralistic heritage parallels his intense opposition to any kind of Federally unified design for education in favor of the tradition of localized control. At the same time it should be pointed out that, despite the admitted selectivity of the schools he visited, the practical effect is not only to approve of a very definite curriculum plan, but also to endorse it for the vast majority of American communities. This plan, he repeatedly reminds us, departs in no important ways from the most "adequate" high schools already in existence. The over-all, if not always exact, correlation between what was already advocated in *Education in a Divided World* and what later was most enthusiastically condoned in Conant's observations of actual schools therefore leads one to infer that, in the tradition of a conservative ethics extending at least from Edmund Burke to F. A. Hayek, he is by no means adverse to the belief that "what is" is also likely to be "right."

Let me end, however, on a positive note. Dr. Conant does not wish us to believe that he is "in favor of freezing the development of the curriculum or the organization of a high school." On the contrary, he does urge investigators to "ask all sorts of questions about human relations among students and their families. . . ." He does urge experimentation. He does see great need for more research by the behavioral sciences in education. I plead with him, therefore, to follow through, to lend his great prestige and earnestness to the task of thorough rebuilding that now lies ahead.

A National System of Education for American Youth

B. EVERARD BLANCHARD

NO MENTION is made concerning education in the Constitution of the United States. This is so because the tenth amendment reserves to the states as to the people powers not expressly delegated to the United States by the Constitution. It has generally been assumed that education is solely a state function and the Federal activities in education are precluded. Nevertheless, the "general welfare" clause of the Constitution has served as a guide for the development of numerous Federal activities in education. During 1950, over two hundred separate and largely uncoordinated Federal programs were in operation. As a matter of fact, every executive department of our Federal government sponsors its own educational program, except the Department of Justice. Many offices, such as the Atomic Energy Commission, the Federal Security Agency, the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Smithsonian Institute, and the Veterans Administration, have educational programs, mainly for their own employees. In addition, the Federal government is also immediately concerned with the education of individuals residing in areas under its special jurisdiction; namely, the District of Columbia, military posts, Indian and other reservations, territories and outlying possessions, and the national parks.

Of even far greater importance may be mentioned the Federal governments' land grants to the common schools in the Ordinance of 1785, and later confirmed in the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Since the conclusion of the Civil War period, Congress has been active in making money grants for vocational education, beginning with the Morrill Act of 1862, which initiated the land-grant college movement. The Smith-Lever Act (1914) witnessed the Federal government's policy of matching funds with states, colleges, or local schools for vocational programs. Later, the Smith Hughes Act (1917) made funds available for vocational education in high schools under specified conditions. Such action thereby influenced educational policy in developing the fields of agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries on the secondary-school levels, as well as in the training of teachers in these areas.

Although Federal education activities which originated as relief measures are now largely ended, they could be re-established in the event of a future national crisis. According to the opinion of educators, the

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Civilian Conservation Corps (1933) and the National Youth Administration (1935) contributed greatly to the welfare of the nation. The interest of the Federal government in defense programs is shown by the educational programs of the Army, Navy, Air Corps, Merchant Marine, and the Coast Guard. The role played by the Federal government in educating the veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean War is generally considered a great landmark in Federal participation in education.

At the present, we have roughly 50,000 foreign students in the United States attending colleges and universities and thousands more in our secondary schools. More than eighty per cent of these foreign students journey to this country either using their own funds or are provided assistance by private foundations, rather than government aid. This should not be construed to suggest that our government leaders have ignored the mounting importance of education as a foreign policy asset. On the contrary, the current year will witness a continued interest and support of an East-West Cultural Center at the University of Hawaii where Asian and American students will be afforded the opportunity to discuss vital issues of national and international importance. Funds for the Center were granted under the Mutual Security Act. Additionally, in such countries as Guinea and Ceylon, teams of educational experts and scholars from the United States are providing the assistance to build educational systems which will promote mutual understanding, growth, and development. The United States African policy and our delegates are anticipating taking an active part when UNESCO discusses a proposed \$1,500,000 program of educational aid to Africa in November.

Switzerland, Great Britain, and the United States lack a central administration for education; however, the presence of a unified aim helps to consolidate the schools in these countries into what may be safely described as a national educational system. Relative to the fixity of organization, I. L. Kandel points out that "No national system of schools has reached a stage of equilibrium; all are in a state of becoming." A rough comparison of what Kandel cites may be illustrated as follows: as late as 1955, according to statistical data compiled by UNESCO, 45 to 55 per cent of the world's population was illiterate. Specifically, 75 per cent in Asia, 40 to 50 per cent in South America, 10 to 15 per cent in North America, and 5 to 10 per cent in Europe. This problem of illiteracy has come under close international scrutiny, especially since World War II, so much, that UNESCO has assisted immeasurably toward its possible solution by establishing Fundamental Education Centers in Patzcuaro, Mexico, and Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt.

A shift in educational leadership is clearly desirable, if education is to provide for the national security and general welfare of our people. No individual state will be capable of advocating and/or working out satisfactorily questions of education. Inasmuch as the powers of analysis consist of many facets of thought, we cannot afford to permit the indi-

vidual states to assume intelligent and effective educational responsibility, *per se*. Simple, yet comprehensive planning listing the immediate and long-range concepts can only result from the collective and voluntary cooperation of ALL states in visualizing the total picture of the nation's educational system. Just as the Federal government has systematized our military forces, its production and distribution, so our combined merger in education pursuits can best determine our policies of re-appraisal and evaluation of current and future accomplishments.

It was the development of industry and the social unrest at the end of the eighteenth century, following the French Revolution, which combined to bring home to the public mind the need of a national system of day schools. The *Report of the Newcastle Commission*, issued in 1861, recognized that to raise the character of children, both morally and intellectually, was and must always be the highest aim of education; but they thought that the training in the rudiments of education, which must be the foundation of all teaching, had been lost sight of, and that, while a fourth of the scholars were really taught, three fourths after leaving school forgot almost everything they had learned there. We are in approximately the same situation today!

The United States Office of Education has recently circulated a paper bearing on national goals. One of the goals as listed suggests increasing teacher salaries by 1964 so that they will be 50 per cent higher in purchasing power than they were in 1959. The national cost of this item is estimated at \$120.5 billion for a 10-year period. Another \$1 billion over the 10-year period would also be spent to improve teacher education, preparation, and in-service education. Another goal is aimed at the construction of some 416,300 classrooms during the second half, the capital outlay for the proposal to be about \$25.5 billion in dollars of 1959 purchasing power. This particular document does not suggest any new sources of revenue to finance these projects and the National Education Association has stated that the goals would be without "practical effect" unless there is vigorous Federal action.

The basic aim of introducing a national system of education for American youth is four-fold; namely,

1. To strengthen the U.S. Office of Education to a position of prestige which will attract educational statesmen, not politicians; educational diplomats who can heighten the interest of the public, consolidate thinking on the goals of public education, and suggest means to evaluate outcomes in terms of our national security and welfare.

2. To provide a focal point for the unification, clarification, and potential application of principles which could exert a determining influence upon subsequent developments of public education.

3. To provide a clearing house in assisting: (a) the present 40,605 school districts (now working wholly independent of one another); (b) some 173,228 school-board members (who currently are attempting to direct and control our public schools); (c) an estimated 36,399,802 pupils (the best of

which do not enter college upon graduation and nearly half who fail to complete the high-school requirements); and (d) some 1,455,335 classroom teachers (one teacher of every 14 is teaching with a substandard, temporary, or emergency credential).

4. To create a top-level commission of competent professional educators to advise the President and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The danger to state regulatory functions as it now stands is that the public is not concerned with the wider conception of common human welfare. If our story of the world has demonstrated anything, it has perforce intimated that the mingling of races and peoples, their instability of human divisions, the variety of human groups and their associations can best be solved by an awakened interest in global affairs and a sense of direction in our educational system—the challenges of today and not the challenges of our fathers. For example, we are devoting some 45 billion dollars a year to defense and another 54 billion to the other needs of Federal, state, and local government. And we still have 406 billion left for private expenditures. Moreover, we are doing all this without too much strain, and with five to six per cent of the labor force unemployed. If the purpose of education can be assumed to be the seeking of truth, Walter Lippmann has written: “. . . to bring to light the hidden facts, to set them into relation with each other, and to make a picture of reality on which men can act” could be the keynote to real progress. A national system of education predicated on this worthy purpose could cause an impact which would tend to negate the current barricades to public education. The past 20 to 30 years might be characterized as a period in which we derived many of our popular beliefs relative to education and the Federal government. But, in this period, we cannot deny that we experienced a surprisingly large number of platitudes and political “sacred cows” which are still with us. Can we, as a nation, continue to ignore potential opportunities which face us and which, if followed through to completion, might stimulate a progress in education which the past has never known?

If the United States Office of Education could be the primary motivating force of our educational system, what could be accomplished? The following concepts could be stressed:

1. Encourage a horizontal approach suggesting that public-school systems work with one another jointly on common problems.
2. Recommend a vertical approach whereby public schools and institutions of higher education might attempt to tackle the problems of articulation.
3. Elimination of confusion relative to the essentiality of the Federal, state, local, and community governments working harmoniously on all critical educational issues. The layman and the educator need to be re-educated to our democratic national security and welfare.
4. Increasing the supply, recruitment, and training of prospective teachers by providing better understanding and cooperative action programs in education.

The relative ease with which the Federal government can tax certain forms of wealth, such as complex business corporations and estates, which are difficult if not impossible to tax at the state or local level, makes it a ready and immediate source of assistance which is sorely needed in many states today. Since each state is charged with the primary responsibility for its educational program, there has been little, if any, interest in the maintenance of a strong central Federal agency. It was not until 1867 that a Federal agency was established, and it was then created to collect statistics and disseminate information about education . . . and . . . this appears to be its primary work today. Commissioners in the U.S. Office of Education have found it exceedingly difficult to influence educational practice in the states and some of the gentlemen, after a short tenure, have left the office for positions which would offer them greater opportunities for professional growth.

In connection with this shift of emphasis, an important factor, often overlooked, is the vast accumulation of more and more reliable factual data. A much wider range of educational information is now available for study and analysis. We must be impelled toward a more realistic and concrete view of national possibilities. Certainly, the aims and ideals of a democratic culture can best be fostered and nursed through the unified thinking of all people. With increased attention and emphasis on individual, group, and mass media, cooperative action on national issues should result in an enlightened citizenry and a system of better education.

The framework of local control dominated by the non-professional must give way to a system whereby goals, achievements, and progress are directed by professionally trained men and women. America's education faces a financial crisis where the professionally trained can best meet the educational obligation of building a nation which will best develop its potentialities.

Ranking High-School Students

BLAIR KRIMMEL

RANKING high-school students is a traditional procedure so much accepted as a part of a high-school record that it would cause, to say the least, some inconvenience and even embarrassment to most high schools if they did not include rank as one of the factors in their record of graduates. There are various examples that can be advanced citing inequities in any system used to rank the usual high-school student, but ranking remains as an important device in basic estimation of the academic ability of any student as he compares to others in his group.

Ranking large groups of students is at best a tedious process. However, the methods now in general use can be simplified without any loss of accuracy. One of the inequities mentioned above can be at least partially compensated for by the use of certain fundamental principles of statistics and a little common sense. In order to describe the simplified methods, it will be clearer to describe first the method in general use for which certain changes will be recommended in order to simplify the procedure.

Most secondary schools today are using letter grades with either no defined numerical equivalent or something like $A = 4$, $B = 3$, $C = 2$, $D = 1$, and $E = 0$ as numerical equivalents. All schools also have curriculums that involve major, minor, and half-year subjects, differences which require some kind of a weighting procedure. Majors usually carry 5 credits and minors or half-year majors carry $2\frac{1}{2}$ credits. The general practice in ranking is to consider either all subjects or all subjects meeting five times a week. In any case, fractional credits are involved. The numerical equivalents of $A = 4$, $B = 3$, $C = 2$, $D = 1$, and $E = 0$ are generally used and this grade equivalent is weighted by multiplying by the credit factor of the course, be it 5 or $2\frac{1}{2}$, to yield a value we could refer to as credit points. In checking a student record, we would sum all of these credit points obtained by the students over the period of time under consideration and then divide this by the numerical sum of the credits yielding an average grade, usually carried to 4 or 5 decimal places. This procedure will be clearer if followed in an example.

Let us consider such an example to illustrate the method described:

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Student	Subject	Grade	Credits	Gr. Equiv.	Cr. Pts.
9th.....	English	C	5	×	2 = 10
	Civics	D	5	×	1 = 5
	Algebra I	B	5	×	3 = 15
	French I	A	5	×	4 = 20
	Typing	D	2½	×	1 = 2½
10th.....	English	B	5	×	3 = 15
	Biology	D	5	×	1 = 5
	Geom.	A	5	×	4 = 20
	French II	E	5	×	0 = 0
	Typing	C	2½	×	2 = 5
11th.....	English	C	5	×	2 = 10
	History	B	5	×	3 = 15
	Chemistry	C	5	×	2 = 10
	French II	D	5	×	1 = 5
	Art	B	2½	×	3 = 7½
TOTALS			67½		145
Grade Average = $\frac{145}{67.5} = 2 \frac{4}{27} = 2.148-148 \dots$					

Notice that each grade has a grade equivalent and the subject for which the grade was earned has a 5 credit or 2½ credit value. Each grade equivalent is multiplied by the credit to obtain the number of credit points. The credit points are summed and then divided by the total credits to obtain an average.

This procedure can be simplified a great deal. Consider first the credits of 5 or 2½. The only effect these have on the average is to weight a 5-credit subject in order to affect the rank twice as much heavily as that of a 2½-credit subject. The same effect would be accomplished with the simpler replacement of 2 units instead of 5 credits and 1 unit instead of 2½ credits. This change avoids the use of fractions and in the large number of additions and divisions involved amounts to a greater over-all simplification than at first appears.

The second change would entail a shift in the basic definition of A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, and E = 0. I would recommend that we define, for purposes of ranking only, that A = 2, B = 1, C = 0, D = -1, and E = -2. This system offers some very definite advantages that will become apparent shortly for anyone who ranks students. Since C is an average grade and occurs more frequently than the others, we would eliminate a great deal of addition, since its numerical equivalent is zero. Further, all equally weighted subjects where B and D or A and E might occur in pairs their sums will be zero and can eliminate addition for those trained in observing these combinations.

If these changes are incorporated into your ranking procedure, the average obtained will be exactly 2 less than that obtained in the original system. This fact can be substantiated by a fundamental theorem of statistics. In order to clarify this procedure let us reconsider the model case above and determine the average described.

<i>Student</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Gr. Equiv.</i>	<i>Un. Pts.</i>
9th.....	English	C	2	×	0 = 0
	Civics	D	2	×	-1 = -2
	Algebra I	B	2	×	+1 = +2
	French I	A	2	×	+2 = +4
	Typing	D	1	×	-1 = -1
10th.....	English	B	2	×	+1 = +2
	Biology	D	2	×	-1 = -2
	Geom.	A	2	×	+2 = +4
	French II	E	2	×	-2 = -4
	Typing	C	1	×	0 = 0
11th.....	English	C	2	×	0 = 0
	History	B	2	×	+1 = +2
	Chemistry	C	2	×	0 = 0
	French II	D	2	×	-1 = -2
	Art	B	1	×	+1 = +1
TOTALS			27		4
Ave. = $\frac{4}{27} = .148148 \dots$					

You will note that, as I stated, this quotient is exactly 2 less than the original figure and consequently use of the second system and adding two to the average obtained gives exactly the same answer as that of the first method, with definite advantages in the case of calculation.

One of the common weaknesses in the ranking process is the lack of recognition for the student who takes a maximum academic load. For example, one student takes 5 major subjects in a year and is compared with a student who takes 4 majors on the basis of his grade average only. There is some inequity here. It is proposed, therefore, that some arbitrary bonus be selected for students taking 5 major subjects. A system that seems to accomplish this is an allowance of 1 bonus point for students taking 5 majors. For example: Student I has 5 A's and an A average of 2.00000 and Student II has 4 A's and an A average of 2.00000.

Student I is given 1 bonus point before his average is computed. That is, his 5 majors, all A's, yield as the sum of unit points $20 + 1$ bonus point or 21. This is divided by the total number of his units (10) to yield 2.10000. If he has received 4 A's and one B, he would not outrank the straight A student with four majors for his average would then be 4 A's equivalent to 16 (u.p.) + 1 B—equivalent to 2 u.p.¹—and 1 bonus = 19. Now $19 \div 10 = 1.90000$.

This 1.90000 then would be his average compared to 2.00000, the average of the straight A student with 4 majors. It is therefore apparent that this arbitrary bonus point will reward the student with the heavier academic load without allowing too great a bonus for mere selection of such an academic load.

U.P.—Unit points are obtained by multiplying the grade equivalent by the number of units (2 or 1) that is the weighting factor of the subject involved.

The problem of evaluating honors courses in the ranking process is troublesome. Any attempt to do this must be more or less arbitrary and dependent upon the actual course in each high school. In general, however, I believe that it might be agreed that a mark in an honors course is somewhere between the value of that mark in a regular course and one mark higher. If we compromise we could consider the value to be one half-of-a-mark higher. In other words, in the system described above, the marks in honors courses would have the equivalent numerical value of $A = 2\frac{1}{2}$, $B = 1\frac{1}{2}$, $C = \frac{1}{2}$, $D = -\frac{1}{2}$, $E = -1\frac{1}{2}$. Here, however, we have introduced fractions we had attempted to avoid. They, of course, are not necessary for by the same theory as before, we may adjust. If honors courses are to be part of the program, define the grade equivalents differently than previously recommended (for the A.B.C.D. and E in all cases). In other words, the entire ranking grade equivalents would be as follows for regular courses; $A = 4$, $B = 3$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, $E = -3$ for honors courses. The same procedure would then be followed when ranking and again the ranking procedure will offer the same advantages as before.

It is possible that some schools may have involved courses in ranking where the relative credit values are not merely in the ratio of 1:2 as $2\frac{1}{2}$ -credit and 5-credit courses are. However, it is obvious that it is always possible to assign whole number unit values with the same ratios as those involved. For example, if courses of $1\frac{1}{4}$ credits are offered along with 5-credit courses, the units' equivalents would be 1 and 4 respectively. (Here a major subject would be 4 units while the $1\frac{1}{4}$ -credit course would be 1 unit.)

In summary, it is always possible, for ranking purposes, to have whole number unit equivalency in order to weight courses exactly as designated by any other system of credits, and it is always possible to define grade equivalence in numbers grouped around zero in positive and negative directions in order to have the advantages described above.

The Value Structures and Critical Thinking Abilities of Secondary-School Principals

FREDERICK R. CYPHERT

THE increasing cruciality of education in today's world has highlighted the demand for competent administrators to serve as educational leaders. A logical outgrowth of this need is the upsurge in the attention being given to the development of educational administrators by colleges and universities, as well as to the selection of candidates who demonstrate the greatest potential for profiting from these formalized leadership development experiences.

One segment of this effort to screen candidates for training in school administration has been concerned with using standardized tests. These efforts have generally been restricted to comparing the test results of one candidate with the scores of his fellow administration trainees. The major and somewhat unique assumption underlying the study described below is that pre-service administrators can more realistically assess their potential success if they are able to compare their test profiles, not only with those of other trainees, but also with the scores of persons who are currently serving with effectiveness in positions similar to those to which the students aspire. The study further assumes, based upon a background of substantiating research, that a person's critical thinking ability and value system are indicative of potential for success in several vocational areas including educational administration. Critical thinking involves the relating of pertinent factors in decision making, while values determine the objectives to be sought through the decision making process. The high-school principal is a decision-maker.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The nature of this study can be stated as follows: an inquiry designed to test the hypothesis that the value structure and critical thinking abilities of practicing administrators are measurable and sufficiently consistent that they form identifiable patterns. It is further hypothesized that:

1. There is a statistically valid stability and consistency of the values measured by the *Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values*(1).
2. There is a distinctive hierarchy of values of school administrators as measured by the above instrument.

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3. There is a stability and consistency in the total raw score of the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal*.
4. It is possible to determine a percentile scale for the raw scores recorded on the above measure.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

An extensive study of the literature revealed that the *Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values* and the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* were appropriate means for ascertaining the needed data. This choice was further strengthened by the fact that many universities who test pre-service administration candidates use these same instruments. The group of administrators tested in this study were practicing secondary-school principals who were actively associated with the Ohio High-School Principals Association. There were one-hundred eighty-one persons who fulfilled these qualifications.

These selected principals were mailed a letter describing the study and soliciting their participation which would involve no less than one hour of time. A total of one-hundred and nine (60 per cent) of those contacted replied affirmatively and were sent copies of the two tests and a brief personal-data questionnaire.

The progressive addition of data from the sample revealed that the inclusion of the results of a greater number of tests would not significantly change the findings of the study. The data from the respondents were compiled and listed in several ways. Frequency tables gave a picture of distributions, highlighting areas of cluster. Measurements of central tendency and standard deviation contrasted the findings of the study with normal distributions. In addition, a percentile scale was prepared so that pre-service students could compare their scores with the composite obtained by the study.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

An analysis of the data from the *Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values* revealed that there is a stable and consistent pattern of values of practicing secondary-school principals as measured by this instrument. This value hierarchy extends from a high in the area labeled Religion through Political, Theoretical, Economic, and Social to a low in the Aesthetic factor.

1. Principals rate the Religious value significantly above the other characteristics measured. This value has been defined as including the ability to get meaning and affirmation for life through active participation therein and movement of one's self and others toward an "ideal" life. It can be assumed that many principals satisfy their strong religious need through immersing themselves in activities which they interpret as bettering the life of the school and the community.

2. The data from the participating principals ranks the Political value second. The definition of the Political man includes such statements as

"interested primarily in power" and "leaders in any field generally have high power value." One may speculate that the principal need not, and indeed will rarely desire power for its own sake, but the effective principal must place a relatively high premium upon leadership and its function.

3. The Theoretical value, *i.e.*, the desire to order and systematize his knowledge, to observe, to reason, and to discover truth, is third in importance to the responding principals. To these principals, beauty and usefulness are secondary to truth in an object or an idea.

4. The Economic man, characterized as one who is more likely to be interested in surpassing people in wealth than in dominating them (Political attitude) or in serving them (Social attitude) is not particularly appealing to the typical principal as is evidenced by its relatively low ranking. It would appear that this value has little effect upon a principal's success or failure, but it should relate to his job-satisfaction.

5. Practicing principals evidence behavior which ranks the Social value next to the lowest in their distribution of the six tested values. This Social factor is defined by the authors of the instrument as unselfishness, kindness, sympathy, the ability to allow others to succeed without building one's own ego at the same time. It therefore appears that many experts in describing the "ideal" principal have placed greater attention upon his ability to work with others without invoking his (the principal's) own values or beliefs upon these people than is apparent from the data submitted by those currently operating in the field.

6. One area, the Aesthetic, shows a negative relationship to probable success. Apparently an inclination to judge events from the standpoint of symmetry, fitness, or beauty is not a major aspect of the normal operating procedures of the high-school principals included in this study.

7. The total pattern of scores is characterized by the extent to which the Religious value is significantly high, the Aesthetic factor is significantly low, and the other four items cluster about the mean of the distribution. It is assumed from statistical analysis that the placement of factors one and six is most important in describing a model of the values of active principals, and that the rank order of the other items is of less importance.

8. The pattern of scores evolved in this study is quite different from the scores of the 5,894 male college students used to standardize the *Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values*. Since the principals who responded in this study were recently a part of the college culture, one might expect somewhat similar scores. However, this is not the case. To illustrate, the Religious value, highest for the principals, is ranked fourth by all male college students and is considerably below the mean of their distribution. This immediately brings to mind such questions as: Is there an original difference between administrative candidates and the average college student? Does something in an administrator's training cause this difference? Is this difference a result of contact with the world of secondary education and the role of the principalship?

A study of the results of the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* shows that a recognizable pattern or level of critical thinking ability is evidenced by principals. This score distribution is significantly different from the distribution obtained by testing college students in general. In interpreting the findings listed below one should be aware that the authors of the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* contend that "ability to think critically involves three things: (a) an 'attitude' of wanting to have supporting evidence for opinions or conclusions before assuming them to be true; (b) 'knowledge' of logical inquiry which helps determine the weight of different kinds of evidence and which help one to reach warranted conclusions; and (c) 'skill' in employing the above attitude and knowledge." (2)

1. This study shows that the secondary-school principal exhibits a high degree of critical thinking ability. The mean critical thinking score for the principals in this investigation falls within the upper quartile of scores obtained from the standardization group (1940 college students). Equally striking was the evidence that fewer than one principal in five scores below the mean for all college students, while more than three principals in ten rank above the ninetieth percentile of the standardization group. It is apparent that a high degree of competency in critical thinking is a characteristic of Ohio high-school principals.

2. A review of related research implies that aspirants to the principalship should generally rank above the fiftieth percentile for college students on this appraisal before they begin their administrative training. Bledsoe (3), who worked with a group throughout a period of training designed to improve the individual's development of insights, skills, and competencies in research, found that only in unusual cases could one expect to raise his critical thinking score by more than five raw score points. Since critical thinking aptitude therefore appears to be chiefly inherent rather than learned, and since the principalship seems to call continually for an increasing application of this facility, those who do not measure above the standardization mean on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* lack promise as administration candidates.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. This study has substantiated the feasibility of establishing descriptive models of persons engaged in secondary-school administration. It appears logical that the current movement aimed at building "models of good teaching" and "descriptions of persons who are superior teachers" would prove equally fruitful in researching "models of good administration" for use in guiding, screening, and teaching those who aspire to the secondary-school principalship. It is unfortunate that many of our administrator-development programs are frequently clogged with a number of persons who desire the proper certification but who demonstrate few or none of the needed personal qualifications.

2. It is recommended that additional research be instituted utilizing instruments similar to those described herein but applying them to varying populations. Studies of practicing principals in several geographic and socio-economic areas, as well as investigations describing the characteristics of superior or selected rather than randomly sampled principals should prove to be enlightening to the profession.

3. It is further recommended that longitudinal studies be initiated to explore the nature of the variables, their mode of action, and the quality of change which takes place between the time an administrative candidate enters college and the time when he can be classified as a seasoned administrator. Insight into when, where, and how administrative behavior develops will be valuable to all concerned.

4. Other facets of the principals' personalities and competencies should likewise be investigated. Research describing such items as his self-concept, his emotional make-up, his interests, and his open-or-closed-mindedness should supplement well the several studies which have ascertained his reading habits, his educational and vocational background, and his family and community relationships. Those institutions whose leadership-training programs are based upon scientific and research-justified data will surely develop the best school administrators.

5. Educators, in reviewing this research or others of a descriptive nature, should avoid the fallacious reasoning that normative or common characteristics or practices are synonymous with good or preferred competencies and activities.

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Choosing the Department Head

STANLEY L. CLEMENT

"MR. JONES," asked the school committee chairman, "what teacher has been in the science department the longest?"

"Mr Smith has taught Chemistry for us for 23 years," Superintendent Jones replied.

"I move we appoint Mr. Smith as the new head of the science department," said a member.

"Such a long record of devoted service should be rewarded," remarked another member, "I second the motion."

"Those in favor? . . . It is unanimous. Mr. Jones, will you inform Mr. Smith of his election and convey our congratulations?"

The head of the high-school science department had resigned to accept a position in industry. His resignation was accepted and the above remarks describe the method of choosing a successor.

Fantastic? Not at all. In essence, this is very often what actually happens when new department chairmen are selected. No thought was given to Mr. Smith's leadership ability, organizational know-how, skill in teaching, or professional outlook. No evidence was presented that he could effectively supervise in the classroom or work successfully with other department members. It was not known whether or not Mr. Smith was interested in the position. The principal not only was not present at the meeting, but also did not even have an opportunity to make a recommendation. The complete roster of science teachers was not even mentioned, let alone reviewed in the light of the above qualifications. It would have been sacrilege even to think of going outside the school for a leader in spite of increased professional training for such positions.

Traditionally, chairmen had been those with seniority in the department (faithful service must be recognized you know). Statistically this is simple to determine and perhaps is an easy way out for the school committee. This is especially true if a choice were to be made between two candidates of somewhat equal ability.

It might be quite possible that the oldest teacher in the department, from the point of view of service, does not want the added responsibility of being a department head. Perhaps the committee then turns to the next one in line with the same disadvantages.

The chances are comparatively slight that capable leaders will be produced by this method. From even the point of view of teaching ability

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and knowledge of subject matter, Mr. Smith's 23 years of experience could well have been one year repeated in much the same way 23 times. He may have found a comfortable procedure and maintained the *status quo*, justifying out-of-date methods under the pretext of upholding standards (and this in a world of new teaching materials and procedures).

The teacher longest in service in a department is often the most conservative, the most inflexible in his ways, and the slowest to change in keeping with new developments in teaching materials, methods in general, and the subject matter of the department itself in particular. When this happens, the department is seriously handicapped. The new head will tend to recommend teachers for the department who seem most likely to perpetuate this *status-quo* philosophy. Even teachers who desire to modernize and improve, find their efforts discounted and often used against them. If a master's degree is a requirement for such a position, the traditional department head will have secured such a degree mainly for status and salary reasons rather than improvement in teaching ability. Often it will have been received many years ago with no course work and little professional reading taking place since.

This is not to indict all older teachers. Many have really kept abreast in their fields and have steadily improved their teaching effectiveness. Such people could and do make very effective leaders in improving instruction.

THE FIRST STEP

The first step in the selection of a department chairman should be the outlining of the scope and responsibilities of the position. If the department headship is to be simply a method of paying an extra salary to teachers of long service and only a few routine responsibilities are to be assigned, such as inventorying textbooks or summarizing ranks, seniority is undoubtedly a good base for selection. But how can the position of department head really be justified unless it provides stimulation, organization, coordination within the department, and correlation with other departments and the school as a whole? The chairman for the department should occupy the same role as the principal for the school. Freed from much actual teaching time (the amount depending on the size of the school and department), the chairman should be responsible for inspiring, supervising, and guiding teachers as well as the furnishing of the facilities necessary for the best in curriculum and methods. He should have a broad outlook and not be a narrow subject matter specialist. He must plan the department organization, lead the program of meetings and committee work, and aid in the selection of new teachers and in the making of assignments to all department members. He should be responsible for the department budget and the securing of adequate supplies and equipment. He should work closely with like departments in other schools through visitation, professional meetings, and professional reading.

METHODS OF SELECTION

How should this type of department head be chosen? The following methods of selection are outlined in order of increasing desirability.

I. The selection of the new department head should be based on the recommendation of the administration, especially the school principal. Indeed, since the latter must work closely with department heads and is responsible for their achievements, he should have a major voice in his selection.

The conscientious principal should evaluate the effectiveness of various department members and recommend the one that would appear to him to be able to do the best job regardless of seniority. This evaluation should not be based on a simple general impression, but should involve scales and charts that would consider such items as knowledge of subject matter, classroom effectiveness, administrative ability, professional outlook, leadership potential, and ability to work with people. The ratings should be supplemented by illustrative evidence.

Advantages: (1) The choice rests mainly with the principal who is responsible for the work of the department heads; (2) the principal should possess the broad outlook which emphasizes what is best for the whole school rather than the narrow subject matter emphasis of one field; (3) the principal is closer to the situation than the superintendent and school committee.

Disadvantages: (1) No matter how sincere the administrator may be, this method is very subjective and depends largely on the opinion of one person; (2) if older teachers are passed over, strained relations are likely to occur between them and the new department head as well as with the principal; (3) the department members who are to work closely with the new head are bypassed in the selection process.

II. The department members choose one of their number to recommend to the principal who passes along the recommendation to the superintendent and the school committee.

Advantages: (1) The department members have the opportunity to choose their own leader rather than have such leadership imposed upon them; (2) the person chosen will be most likely to be able to get along well with the group; (3) the choice will undoubtedly reflect demonstrated leadership ability on a closer and more realistic base.

Disadvantages: (1) While guide lines for such a choice should be provided, personality might easily overrule perspective of what a department head should really be; (2) competition among members could easily provoke strained relations which would handicap future department efficiency; (3) while the person chosen might well be liked by department members, it could be embarrassing if the administration is not in agreement. Department members should participate in the choice, but to have full responsibility for it would be unwise. The principal works with the department through the department head who is really an administrative assistant. Certainly his preference should be considered.

The choice should not be the responsibility of either administration or department members alone. The third method of selection attempts to secure the advantages of the first two methods without their disadvantages.

III. The vacancy would be announced and a job analysis publicized much as would be done for a new teaching position. Job descriptions should be already on file having been developed by the department and the administration and revised from time to time as appropriate. It would include, as main headings, items referred to earlier in this article when the responsibilities of a good department head were outlined. Teachers would apply for the position, presenting evidence of their qualifications in terms of the job description and being interviewed by the selection committee. This committee might include representation from the school board, administration (certainly the school principal), the department concerned, and other departments.

Advantages: (1) All teachers who desire would have an opportunity to apply for the position and present evidence of their qualifications. This would stimulate teachers to do their best work in order to be ready for the opportunity. (2) The broad base for selection (the committee) lessens the opportunity for strained personal relations among department members or with the administration; (3) a good job description provides a logical framework for the presentation of evidence and makes the whole process more objective.

Disadvantages: (1) More time of more people would be required in the selection process (but a better choice should result); (2) all good candidates cannot present themselves well on paper or in an interview (but should not this be one of the characteristics of a good leader?).

IV. As we consider the various methods of selection, the question may arise as to whether there should be a permanent department head. In the last method to be suggested, the position and title would be eliminated altogether with the department organizing as a committee of the whole. The chairmanship would rotate among the members for terms of one year. The main duties performed by the department head might be delegated to various sub-committees, membership again rotating with perhaps three-year terms.

Advantages: (1) A broader potential for leadership and talent would be tapped; (2) more active participation in the establishment of policies and procedures by all department members would be encouraged; (3) teachers would have better understanding of the department as a whole through the rotating assumption of responsibility; (4) a broader source for ways to improve teaching effectiveness would be provided; (5) the participation process would influence teachers to conduct more democratic classrooms; (6) department procedures would be more effective because of the tendency to support a policy which one has helped make; (7) personality clashes would not be as likely to be accentuated since

responsibilities would not be centered in one person permanently and since committee membership would change periodically.

Disadvantages: (1) There will be a tendency toward lack of coordination that could be provided by a definite chairman (it may be stagnation rather than coordination however); (2) more time would be required of teachers for department committee work (maybe the freed time of the department head could be divided among the other teachers).

This method possesses many of the advantages of the other three methods without their disadvantages. Success would depend greatly on the dynamic leadership of the principal whose influence would replace that which could be provided (but often isn't) by the department head.

In closing it is well to recognize an outstanding danger of the department organization itself. A department can easily become a vested interest which strives to outdo other departments rather than cooperate with them. In order to enhance the status of the departments, attempts are continually made to add unnecessary subjects and avoid the elimination or fusion of those of lessened importance. Methods and materials found effective would be jealously guarded rather than shared.

To offset this problem frequent "whole staff" curriculum meetings should be held to clarify policy and procedures used in the various departments with encouragement for interchangeable use. This would provide opportunity for closer correlation of subject matter cutting down the duplication among departments so often unrecognized.

The teacher should work as actively on committees transcending subject matter lines as those confined to one department alone. Indeed, curriculum committees might well be organized around the purposes of education rather than subject matter fields. These committees might represent such areas as citizenship, home and family life, health, and vocations. This pattern of organization would tend to promote a more closely articulated and integrated program with a unity that is missing when the curriculum is organized around "subject spokes" not directly connected to the "hub." Subject matter specialists would act as consultants rather than hold administrative positions. Administration should be a facilitating service enabling the teaching-learning situation to meet more effectively the purposes of the school as stated in its philosophy. Whatever administrative patterns are set up should arise from these purposes.

Sailors and Scholars

J. M. SEYMOUR

NEXT June, eleven hundred college seniors in fifty-two universities in the United States will receive not one, but two sheepskins: One will be a bachelor's degree and the other an officer's commission in the United States Navy or Marine Corps awarded after completion of four-years study as a Midshipman, United States Naval Reserve, with tuition paid by Uncle Sam.

Another "give away" program? Not at all. Uncle Sam expects, and will receive, full return for his investment in the education of these selected young men. Each one of these new officers has signed an agreement to remain on active duty for at least four years after being commissioned. Each one will take his place alongside graduates of the U.S. Naval Academy whose commission is dated the very same day. Once aboard ship, or wherever assigned, you won't be able to tell them apart. They will be doing similar jobs with similar responsibilities, receive the same pay and have the same opportunities for promotion.

How do the college men do it? How do they get to be Naval Officers while some of their classmates face the draft and the possibility of service in enlisted ranks?

Immediately after the end of World War II, the Navy realized that the U.S. Naval Academy at Annapolis was not adequate to produce the increased number of career officers necessitated by the emergence of the United States as the world's leading sea power with commitments in every quadrant of the globe. Expansion of the Naval Academy was considered but lack of real estate prevented it. A second Naval Academy was proposed. This was rejected as too expensive and apt to divide the officer corps into two different factions. The problem was turned over to a panel of distinguished civilian educators and outstanding naval officers. As a result of penetrating study by this committee, the Congress enacted legislation which expanded the mission of the Naval ROTC, originally established in 1926 for reserve officers only, to include a new program known as the Regular Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps. Even though the word "Reserve" remains in the title, Congress intends that this new college program provide career officers for the Regular Navy and Marine Corps. Currently, the Navy is the only Armed Force which enjoys

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this type of ROTC. The other two are still in the ROTC business—serving a very useful purpose—but their major aim is to produce officers for the Reserves.

Following passage of the new law, Regular NROTC Units were created on the campuses of colleges and universities selected from among those which requested their establishment. Added to the twenty-seven already organized under the previous law, the new total became fifty-two. In September of 1946 the first of this new breed of midshipmen commenced their naval careers on college campuses from Harvard to UCLA, and from University of Washington to Georgia Tech. Each year since then another group has taken this first step toward becoming an admiral.

About sixteen hundred are chosen annually from the twenty thousand who apply. In November, high-school seniors who have learned of this opportunity from their guidance counselor and through publicity in the papers or on TV, fill out an application for taking the Naval College Aptitude Test, an examination similar to the well-known college boards.

About 7600 will pass the test, taken in December, with a score sufficiently high to be considered further. Then these men will be requested to report on a day in January or February for a physical exam, a written test designed to determine their aptitude for service as a career officer, and a personal interview. Each candidate, successful so far, will appear before two officers, one of whom is usually a senior naval or marine officer assigned to an NROTC Unit. This interview before experienced officers plays a major part in determining whether the applicant shows promise of becoming a capable naval officer, after four years of college including a course in Naval Science. It is here that the applicant sells himself—or fails to—for he is in effect applying for a job. It is a singular opportunity to convince the Navy that it should invest an average of \$5,000 in him for his college education.

No one is disqualified by this interview board. The board merely sizes him up as a prospective officer. If he is one of the 6,000 or so physically qualified, his name and record are submitted to a Selection Committee in his home state. This State Selection Committee is composed of an educator, a prominent civilian not actively associated with either education or the Navy, and a senior Naval Officer. The committee goes over the records with a fine-toothed comb. It will consider the applicant's high-school academic record, his scores on the Navy Tests, and the appraisal by those two naval officers who interviewed him personally. It will also look for the young men who show the greatest promise of developing leadership qualities so vital to a successful naval officer. Financial need has no bearing on the Committee's decision. Nor is politics a factor. The applicant does not need a Congressional appointment. Further, no pressure is brought to bear on the Committee. The members don't even know the names of the men to be considered until they convene. And the members probably don't even know each other until the selection session starts. The Committee is looking for those fully qualified applicants who

are reasonably inclined at the time toward making the Navy their career, and who have the academic potential to be graduated from college.

Quotas for each state are assigned by the Navy. These are compiled on a basis of the percentage of male high-school graduates within that state compared with the number of male high-school graduates in the entire United States. Thus, the geographical location of the applicant's home neither helps nor hinders his numerical chance of being selected. A man in a highly populated state has an opportunity equal to that of an applicant who lives in a sparsely settled area, for the quota in the former is proportionately greater.

Applicants selected by the State Committee have one more big hurdle. They must be accepted by a university or college where an NROTC is established. They must make application on their own initiative to the college of their choice, and they must be accepted by the college within the quota of NROTC applicants assigned to that particular college. It is quite possible that an applicant may be acceptable to a particular college, but is not highly enough regarded to be included in the NROTC quota. In that case, having been selected by the Navy, the Navy will attempt to place him in one of the other fifty-one NROTC colleges, providing that the applicant has indicated that he is willing to attend it. Nevertheless, 86 per cent have entered either their first or second choice of college.

Having survived this rigorous selection process, the young man is among the 1600 finally selected from those 20,000 who applied in November. He reports to the college and the Professor of Naval Science in September and is administered the oath of office as a Midshipman, U.S. Naval Reserve. The Navy then picks up the tab for his tuition, pays travel expenses from his home, issues the necessary uniforms, gives him textbooks for all courses, and hands him a check for fifty dollars cash every month. He can spend that stipend any way he likes—buy football tickets, take a date to the prom, or put it toward his room and board. No, fifty dollars cash is not enough to get him by these days, but it helps. Room and board, normal living expenses, and recreation will amount to considerably more. He will need money from home, probably \$500 to \$1,000 more per year than the Navy provides. But he is free to earn some of that by taking part-time jobs, providing he can keep up his academics. And, he is eligible for any other financial aid in the form of scholarship funds, as far as the Navy is concerned.

Now what does the Navy expect of him in college?

The Navy expects him to take the Naval Science course—three hours of classroom instruction plus a two-hour laboratory period each week for four academic years—while taking other college courses leading to a degree in almost any field that he chooses. The exceptions include such majors as veterinary, medicine, theology, art, horticulture, real estate, and law. The Navy wants these midshipmen to become seagoing officers to man ships in the Fleet. Chaplains, doctors, lawyers, and such are obtained from other sources. But a midshipman may enter the Marine Corps, as you shall see.

In the Freshman year, the Naval Science course covers Naval Orientation and History of Sea Power. The freshman becomes familiar with the organization of the Department of Defense and the United States Navy, and learns the basic customs and traditions of the Navy. He studies the influence of sea power upon global history and upon the present and future security of the United States. The first year is followed by a summer cruise in one of the Navy's ships.

During the first term of the second year, the sophomore pursues a course in psychology which is designed to provide a foundation in human relations in preparation for the Naval Leadership course in the senior year. This psychology course is taught by a civilian professor of the college faculty, while all other Naval Science courses are conducted by experienced Naval or Marine Corps Officers who have undergone an intensive course in teaching techniques at Northwestern University in Illinois.

The second term of the sophomore year is devoted to the study of Naval Weapons. The student learns about ammunition, naval weapons and fire control systems including their construction, development, and usage. He also learns about anti-submarine devices, rockets, aircraft and anti-aircraft weapons, guided missiles, sonar, radar, nuclear weapons, and is exposed to space technology. At the end of this year, he undergoes summer indoctrinational training in amphibious warfare and aviation.

The junior year covers Naval Engineering and Navigation. The midshipman studies the principles of steam and diesel propulsion plants and is taught a little bit about nuclear propulsion. He also finds out about ship buoyancy, stability, and strength. The Navigation course consists of piloting, compasses, tides, and currents. Then follow electronic navigation, nautical astronomy, and celestial navigation. Upon completion of this year, he enters upon his final summer cruise in a different type ship. Now that he is almost an officer, he is treated like one during this cruise, performing the duties of a junior officer.

Back to school for the last lap, the senior midshipman studies Naval Operations and Leadership. He learns the responsibilities of the young naval officer on the bridge of a ship at sea and, during the second term, problems of human relations, the principles of which were studied in the sophomore year. This final term fits him to assume leadership of the enlisted men assigned to him aboard ship.

In the majority of cases, the Naval Science courses are honored by the college for degree credit. They meet the requirements of most colleges for completion of courses in the humanities and science or engineering.

Those midshipmen who prefer to enter the Marine Corps, rather than the Navy, may do so—if they are selected. At the end of the sophomore year, they may switch to the Marine Option course, still wearing the NROTC uniform, and for the next two years study the History of the Art of War and Marine Amphibious Warfare, under the tutelage of a Marine

Corps Officer. Their final summer is spent at a Marine training base rather than aboard ship.

Similar provisions are made for those midshipmen at some colleges who desire to become Supply Corps Officers in the Navy.

With four years of college and Naval Science behind them, the big day arrives. In officers' uniforms for the first time, they are commissioned as Ensigns in the Navy or Second Lieutenants in the Marine Corps. Mothers and best girls, often fiancées, pin on their officers' insignia. (Woe betide the man who is married *before* being commissioned! The Navy frowns severely on such benedicts, and will surely evict them from the ranks.) Normally the Ensign's first duty is aboard ship, but limited numbers may be assigned directly to naval aviation training or submarine school. In every case, these new officers are embarking on careers of service to their country, careers to Preserve the Peace.

What have their four years been like? Were these midshipmen any different from their civilian classmates?

During their college years, the midshipmen, as we have seen, were free to follow courses leading to almost any baccalaureate degree; they were free to join fraternities, take jobs, play football, sing in the glee club, write in the campus paper, and have dates. Anything at all, in fact, as long as it didn't interfere with their grades and was not immoral or illegal. They lived the normal life of any male college student and wore their uniforms only for NROTC activities. Wherein are they different, then? Basically, they are *not* different, except for two major considerations. First, they have learned self-discipline and leadership; they have learned to take orders and to give orders. They have learned to assume responsibility. Second, they have had a purpose, a goal. They have known for four years, that if successful, they would be commissioned as officers and enter immediately upon a definite career, which if all goes well, can be for a lifetime. They have known, too, that they were, and will continue to be, part of a team, a team whose mission is to keep the United States safe for them and their fellow citizens.

But what of their future? What are their chances for promotion compared with those of Naval Academy graduates? Beyond question, their opportunities for promotion are equal to, if not better than, those of their contemporaries who were commissioned from other sources, *including* the United States Naval Academy. NROTC graduates perform the same duties, they attend the same graduate schools, they have the same chance to specialize, as officers from the Naval Academy. In a recent year, of 814 officers of equal service considered for promotion to the rank of Lieutenant Commander, there were 362 Naval Academy officers and 452 NROTC graduates. Eighty-six per cent of the former were selected, while 88 per cent of the NROTC officers made the grade. Equal opportunity? Definitely, yes. After all, promotion in any career depends, in the final analysis, on individual performance—not on the old school tie.

A survey of the commanding officers of recently commissioned officers from one NROTC unit, disclosed that 58 per cent were considered equal to the Naval Academy graduates, insofar as over-all performance is concerned, 32 per cent were considered better than Naval Academy men, and only 10 per cent were considered less proficient.

Obviously, then, these NROTC graduates perform their duties well. They pull their weight in the boat. Perhaps because of the variety of academic courses followed by these officers, they contribute a broader educational base and make for a really well-rounded officer corps. But the primary question concerning Uncle Sam, who footed the bill for the education of these men, is how long they'll stay in the Navy. After all, one long-term officer is less expensive for the taxpayer than twenty who choose to leave active duty after their minimum obligation of four years.

When the Regular NROTC program was enacted into law by the Congress, the Navy said it would be happy if 25 per cent of the officers from this source remained on active duty beyond their minimum obligation. The first few years were discouraging. Only 10 per cent, 18 per cent, 20 per cent requested, and were accepted for, Navy careers. Now, after ten years of experience with the program, 26 per cent of NROTC graduates are selected for retention in the Regular Navy. The original goal has been exceeded. And, as in all successful campaign drives, the Navy has raised its sights. It now wants 75 per cent of the NROTC graduates to become career officers. Not necessarily because more officers are needed—Congress sets a limit—but because it is cheaper to you, the taxpayer, to retain in the Navy more long-term officers. Each NROTC graduate who becomes a career officer saves the taxpayers \$8,000.

The secondary-school seniors who apply for the government subsidized NROTC, then, should be men who understand first that the Regular NROTC is maintained in the fifty-two colleges for only one purpose—to educate young men for eventual commissioning as career officers in the Navy and Marine Corps. This and the Naval Academy are the two primary sources of career officers. Second, they should apply only if they are reasonably inclined toward a career in the Navy or Marine Corps. Certainly, no one should apply who is definitely against such a career. However, if he is interested in becoming a Reserve officer, he may apply for the Contract Program once he is accepted by one of the NROTC colleges.

A senior who expects to be graduated from high school and is a male citizen of the United States, who is at least 17 years of age and not yet 21, and who can pass the rigid physical and academic requirements has this unparalleled opportunity to benefit from a college education and serve in a profession whose mission is to safeguard his country.

But let it be repeated, no one should apply for the Regular NROTC unless he is positively inclined toward a career in the United States Navy or Marine Corps.

A Survey of the Colorado Secondary Schools

HERMAN M. WILLIAMS

TO EVEN the most casual observer of the American secondary education, it is apparent that secondary schools have been caught up in a rip-tide of charges and counter charges concerning objectives and results. Some of the criticisms of the educational program border on triviality; others strike at the very heart of existing problems. All too frequently curriculum change or revision has meant merely a reshuffling of the same courses, or the superimposing of new methods, procedures, and techniques upon a traditional and out-moded framework. Some school systems have encouraged new and vital patterns, such as team-teaching, multiple classes, better utilization of staff, educational television, and a revitalization of the guidance program.

In order to investigate certain changes in the educational programs of the secondary schools of Colorado, a committee of graduate students at Colorado State College sent a questionnaire to 171 junior and senior high schools in the state. (A return of 60.8 per cent of the total questionnaires or 104 schools represent the secondary schools analyzed in this brief survey). For purposes of classification, the secondary schools were divided into three categories based upon school enrollment: (1) small schools—1-150 pupil enrollment; (2) middle-size schools—151-600 pupil enrollment; (3) large schools—601 and up pupil enrollment. Of the 83 reporting high schools, over 20 per cent graduate less than 10 students, and 70 per cent graduate less than 50 students. In light of the Conant Report, that a comprehensive high school should graduate at least 100 students to have an effective program, four out of five Colorado high schools would be considered too small. However, in the case of many good rural schools in sparsely settled areas, even with emphasis on reorganization and consolidation, these schools would find that compliance with this recommendation would be difficult.

ORGANIZATION

An examination of the data reveals that the Colorado secondary schools have no generally accepted plan of grade organization. Thirty-nine per cent of the schools have grades 7-12; 24.4 per cent have grades 9-12; 13.4 per cent have grades 10-12; and approximately 11 per cent grades 6-12.

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A definite relationship exists between school size and grade organization. In the small schools, 72.7 per cent are organized with six or more grades. These schools reported that the main reasons for this organization are: (1) opportunity for more subject offerings, (2) an increased number of teachers, (3) a better utilization of the present staff, and (4) possibility of a broader program.

REORGANIZATION AND CONSOLIDATION

A major educational political issue in Colorado for the past twelve years has been the proposed need for consolidation. Two reorganization bills—one in 1949, the other in 1958—have given impetus to this movement. Forty per cent of the schools in this survey have reorganized since 1959. However, very few of these schools have been reorganized long enough to effect complete consolidation and the actual closing of some schools in the district. In addition, 34.2 per cent of all schools are contemplating reorganization. This means that approximately 75 per cent of the schools in the survey have been affected by reorganization since 1958.

TIME BLOCK

For purposes of this survey, a time block was considered as a class meeting for two or more class periods and combining or replacing two or more subjects that would ordinarily be taught separately.

In the small high schools, 2.8 per cent use a time block in grades 11 and 12 for science, and 2.8 per cent in grades 9 through 12 for English, social studies, and science. In the middle-size junior high school, 40 per cent use a time block in grades 7 and 8. In the large junior high schools, 47.1 per cent have a time block. Most of these schools initiated this type of organization since 1950 and have not changed it since its inception. Of all courses taught in the time block in the junior and senior high schools, 80 per cent include English and social studies. The other combination is English, reading, and spelling. Sixty per cent of the schools that have a time block use this organization in grades 7 and 8.

Colorado junior high schools prefer the 7-9 organization. This organization is more popular in the large schools (83.3 per cent) than in the middle-size schools (60 per cent). Questionnaires were sent to 50 per cent of the junior high schools in Colorado. There are no small junior high schools in the state, and, from the survey returns, only about 27 per cent of these schools are middle-size. For these reasons many of the results were from schools in the greater Denver area.

CURRICULUM CHANGES

This part of the survey concerns courses which have been added or dropped from the curricula of the Colorado secondary schools between 1955 and 1960. Reasons for the general changes are presented. Although information on gains and losses is available for each category of school enrollment, for the purposes of this article, a composite report is given.

In this study, evidence seems to point to the trend of adding biology and introductory courses in physics and chemistry at the junior high-school level. At the high-school level, there are significant gains in such courses as advanced biology, advanced chemistry, and advanced physics, physical science, and geology. In the junior high schools of this sampling, additions have been made in algebra, advanced algebra, and accelerated mathematics. In the high school, additions have been made in algebra and geometry with great gains in trigonometry, advanced geometry, advanced algebra, advanced general mathematics, and mathematical analysis. The national trend of moving some senior high-school science and mathematics courses to the junior high-school level and thereby giving the academically talented an opportunity to take advanced courses during their last two years seems apparent in Colorado schools.

From this survey, it is revealed that business education courses are increasing slightly, but advanced courses appear to be decreasing. Evidence indicates that the tendency to move beginning typewriting to the junior high school is noticeable.

One of the most significant gains in the junior high schools and the senior high schools is in the area of industrial arts. (A conjecture in this change may be that sociological influences of industrialization and urbanization are converting agricultural programs into industrial arts programs.) Although homemaking offerings seem to be decreasing in the senior high schools, they are increasing at the junior high-school level.

Significant gains have been made in the English language arts. It is interesting to notice that courses in reading and speech have gained considerable recognition at all levels. In the area of modern foreign languages, significant gains have been made at the junior and senior high-school levels. There is a tendency to add a second modern foreign language in the junior high-school curriculum.

A variety of offerings is evident in the social studies field at the senior high-school level, especially in the areas of world geography, American problems, world affairs, and American government and civics.

Courses dropped in the junior high school are negligible, and in the senior high-school division such courses as anthropology, business arithmetic, advanced shorthand, advanced typewriting, homemaking, state history, spelling, and diversified occupations have been reported dropped by some schools. *The following tables* reveal the main reasons for the adding and dropping of courses in the various size categories of junior and senior high schools:

Although the reasons for adding and dropping are self-explanatory, apparently the existence of a "school philosophy" had less influence on curriculum change than would be expected. Is this situation nationwide? Should secondary schools seek to redefine and test their objectives in light of our changing society and period of reorientation?

TABLE 1. Reasons for Course Additions in Small High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Small School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Course Additions</i>
48.0	Needs of youth
18.7	Teacher availability
12.0	Local pressure
9.3	School philosophy
4.0	Educators' recommendations
4.0	National trends
4.0	School board

TABLE 2. Reasons for Course Additions in Middle Category High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Middle Category School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Course Additions</i>
51.7	Needs of youth
14.9	Educators' recommendations
10.3	National trends
8.0	Teacher availability
6.9	Local pressure
5.7	School philosophy
2.3	School board

TABLE 3. Reasons for Course Additions in Large High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Large School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Course Additions</i>
45.5	Needs of youth
18.2	Educators' recommendations
16.7	School philosophy
10.6	National trends
6.1	Local pressure
1.5	School board
1.5	Teacher availability

TABLE 4. Reasons for Course Additions in Middle Category Junior Highs

<i>Percentage of Total Middle Category Junior High Schools</i>	<i>Reasons for Course Additions</i>
72.7	Needs of youth
18.2	School philosophy
9.1	Local pressure

TABLE 5. Reasons for Course Additions in Large Junior High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Large Junior High-School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Course Additions</i>
65.4	Needs of youth
11.5	National trends
7.7	Local pressure
7.7	School philosophy
3.8	Teacher availability
3.8	Educators' recommendations

TABLE 6. Reasons for Courses Dropped by Small High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Small High-School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Dropping Courses</i>
35.7	Teacher availability
25.0	Lack of interest
10.7	School board
10.7	School philosophy
7.1	Needs of youth
7.1	Finances
3.6	Research

TABLE 7. Reasons for Courses Dropped by Middle Category High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Middle Category High-School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Dropping Courses</i>
32	Lack of interest
28	Teacher availability
12	School philosophy
8	School board
8	Educators' recommendations
8	Needs of youth
4	National trends

TABLE 8. Reasons for Courses Dropped in Large High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Large High School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Dropping Courses</i>
50	Lack of interest
30	School philosophy
10	Local pressure
10	Teacher availability

TABLE 9. Reasons for Courses Dropped in Large Junior High Schools

<i>Percentage of Total Large Junior High-School Responses</i>	<i>Reasons for Dropping Courses</i>
33.3	Teacher availability
33.3	Lack of interest
33.3	School philosophy

IN-SERVICE GROWTH PROGRAMS

According to data from the reporting schools, 80 per cent of all high schools have some form of in-service growth program for teachers. All the reporting junior high schools revealed some form of in-service program. Programs most frequently mentioned were pre-school conferences, post-school conferences, regional workshops, and state meetings. Despite the emphasis on professional improvement, less than 30 per cent of the reporting schools granted released time for participation in professional growth programs.

CURRICULUM AND SCHOOL PHILOSOPHY

This section of the report deals with the existence of written curricula in the Colorado secondary schools and the influence of a stated philosophy on curriculum change. Forty per cent of the small and middle-size high schools, 70 per cent of the large high schools, and 68.2 per cent of all the junior high schools had a written constitution. Although a majority of the secondary schools had a stated philosophy, slightly over half of them agreed that their philosophy influenced to any degree change or improvement in the curriculum.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

From this study, the data revealed that 93 per cent of the large high schools, 73 per cent of the middle-size high schools, and 63 per cent of the small high schools use some form of standardized tests in addition to those required by the state. In the junior high schools the use of additional tests ranged from 100 per cent in the large junior high schools to 40 per cent in the middle-size junior high schools.

GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

The questionnaire returns revealed that 36 per cent of the small high schools, 70 per cent of the middle-size high schools, and 100 per cent of the large high schools have an organized guidance program. One hundred per cent of the large junior high schools and 80 per cent of the middle-size junior high schools had a guidance program.

Schools were asked to react to the preparation of guidance personnel in ten areas of guidance. Although some personnel had had educational training in all fields, most of them seemed to concentrate in the following fields: (1) philosophy and principles of guidance, (2) educational and psychological testing, (3) counseling and interviewing techniques, (4) group guidance, and (5) organization and administration of guidance and pupil personnel services.

At the senior high-school level, the order of significance of the various types of guidance services is as follows: (1) educational, (2) vocational, and (3) personal. At the junior high-school level the same three types are presented, but the order of preference is (1) educational, (2) personal, and (3) vocational.

GROUPING

Slightly over half of the small- and middle-size high schools favor heterogeneous grouping, whereas 68.8 per cent of the large high schools have homogeneous grouping. Of the reporting junior high schools, all of the middle-size junior high schools have homogeneous grouping, and 88.2 per cent of the large junior high schools favor homogeneous grouping. Approximately half of the small- and middle-size high schools make provision for the slow and fast learners while 93.8 per cent of the large high schools provide programs for these groups. All of the reporting junior high schools have some type of program for these two groups of students.

CONCLUSIONS

Although the total educational program of the Colorado secondary schools has experienced the influence of national trends, it is clear that many schools and school systems place priority on a well-balanced program. The following conclusions may be drawn from this study:

1. Many school districts are consolidating schools in order to broaden the base of educational opportunities for children and youth.

2. There is a tendency to increase block time scheduling to provide a more flexible program.

3. Although current emphasis is placed upon adding courses in mathematics and science, additional courses in the English language arts, social studies, and modern foreign languages have been introduced.

4. Emphasis placed on the in-service growth program for teachers is encouraging. However, more schools might consider the possibility of more released time for professional work.

5. Greater consideration should be given to the influence of the philosophies and objectives of the secondary schools on curriculum revision and change.

6. A recognition of the significance of an effective guidance program seems to prevail in the schools.

7. Although grouping may not be the answer to meeting individual differences, at least Colorado schools are making provisions for the slow and fast learner.

Democratic Organization: Myth or Reality

WALLAZZ B. EATON

A DISCUSSION on the theories of organization cannot be related solely to one type of institution because all organized human endeavor is set up to conform to a similar conceptual pattern. One concept of organization is prevalent today in virtually all human enterprise—the line-and-staff idea. The universality of this concept is clearly stated by Burton and Brueckner: "It appears in the church, in department stores, in publishing houses, in manufacturing concerns, in charitable and nonprofit enterprises, in purely eleemosynary institutions, in fact, wherever the activities of butcher, baker, or candlestick-maker are extensive enough to necessitate organization."¹

The public school organization plays a large role in this discussion for where else, if not in the public schools which endeavor to teach the ideals of democracy, should truly democratic organization be found? I must admit to having a large interest in the public schools and my own thinking is oriented in that direction.

From time immemorial men have been organized. Why, then, should any concern be shown for organization now? The plain truth is that few are actively concerned with the form of organization and this surely is one reason why the ageless pyramidal form persists even in democratic societies.

Within the past three decades, we have survived two challenges to our democratic ideals. In addition, our nation has withstood two great economic crises. "We have changed from giving democracy lip service to demanding that it form a working basis of our organization for living."² If Skogsberg's assessment is correct, the time has come to question the traditional, hierarchical concept of organized human activity since there is little democracy to be found in the line-and-staff concept.

Administrators have been disturbed in recent years by psychological studies which have shown that men react better generally when working under democratic rather than autocratic direction. The results of these studies, which are many, indicate that the principles of line-and-staff

¹ William H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner. *Supervision, A Social Process*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1955. Pp. 101-102.

² Alfred H. Skogsberg. *Administrative Operational Patterns*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1950. P. 7.

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organization are not infallible and should be carefully studied in the light of the human factor.

Kimball Wiles, in a discussion of supervision for the public schools, shows concern for the principles of democracy. After a review of the literature on supervision, he states that "This whole transition [to the democratic approach] has taken place in the literature on supervision during a thirty-five-year period."³ Evidence exists which shows that the relationship of supervisor to worker has been in transition during this period. Men are questioning the validity of the traditional, authoritative approach to human relations and a search for a more fruitful concept has been undertaken.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is my intention to present the principles of hierarchical organization and criticisms of these principles as presented by various writers. Following this, a new conceptual pattern for organization will be presented. Before proceeding to the main topic, however, I wish to explore briefly the nature of organization and the base upon which school organization can soundly be constructed.

NATURE OF ORGANIZATION

Many writers, when discussing organization, refer to it as something tangible which can be perceived, felt, and recognized. James Mooney's definition presents evidence of this view: "Organization is the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose."⁴ Three factors make up this composite; form, human association, and a common purpose. I don't wish to argue with the latter two components. The form, as Mooney refers to it, is the age-old pyramidal structure which has represented the organization of men. To such men as Mooney and Lyndell Urwick, outstanding writers on scientific organization, the form is an immutable structure which dictates the form to be followed in all group endeavor. The structural pattern is ageless and human beings must conform to it.

The structure is a fallacy. It is not tangible, or real in the sense that it exists as does a tree or other product of nature. The form is a product, rather, of the thinking of man, and is not infallible. Earl Latham perceived this and embodies the view in his definition of organization: "Organization is an idea, not a thing. It is an idea that men have about their relation to each in the accomplishment of common objectives."⁵ Latham refutes the notion that the pattern is unchangeable. If men entertain the principles

³ Kimball Wiles. *Supervision for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1955. P. 6.

⁴ James D. Mooney. *The Principles of Organization*. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers. 1947. P. 1.

⁵ Earl Latham. "Hierarchy and Hieratics," in Dwight Waldo (ed.) *Ideas and Issues in Public Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1953. P. 107.

of democracy, the ideas which they have concerning organization should conform to this ideal for the sake of consistence if nothing more. Should they believe in totalitarianism, the organizational pattern should embody these principles, rather than those of democracy. But to attempt to superimpose democratic ideals into a totalitarian structure is nothing short of hypocrisy. Both Mooney and Latham embody a common element in their definitional purpose. All groups when they organize have an underlying motive for their existence. The group endeavor is the fulfillment of common objective and is the base for existence.

BASES OF ORGANIZATION

Organization can be conceived from various points of view. In general, four bases are recognized. Fritz Morstein Marx states that these are: "Function of purpose, process or profession, clientele or commodity, and areas."⁶ The foundation of the public school organization must be one of those factors. Even though more than one factor may be in evidence, emphasis must be given to one item and the others, to some degree, must be subordinated.

PURPOSE ORGANIZATION

Function of purpose, according to Morstein Marx,⁷ is fairly easy to define. Education of children is the function of the schools just as the police organization is to maintain order. Philip Phenix, in his book, *Philosophy of Education*, uses the purpose base when defining the school. He says that a school organization "may be defined as a social institution whose explicit and primary objective is education."⁸

A great deal of argument can be ignited by using such a definition as a base for school organization. Feeling can run high since, semantically, education will depend on one's philosophy. Arthur Moehlman objects to the use of this base because, as he says, "the term education may be confusing because it is loosely used to describe conditions as well as activities."⁹ To discuss education as the base of the public school organization is to brave the gamut of arguments from the Thomist through the modern experimentalist. The net result, disagreement.

I cannot deny that education takes place within the school organization. However, it is but one of many social institutions which cooperate in performing this function. "The influence of the home, the church, and the neighborhood upon the child both before and after the few years of partial institutional control should not be minimized."¹⁰

⁶ Fritz Morstein Marx. *Elements of Public Administration*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1946. P. 141.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 141.

⁸ Philip H. Phenix. *Philosophy of Education*. New York: Henry Holt Company. 1958. P. 24.

⁹ Arthur B. Moehlman. *School Administration*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company. 1951. P. 6.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

The major emphasis, the basal reason for the existence of the public school organization must lie elsewhere. Not only is the term education loosely understood, but also the function is surely not peculiar to the institution since it is a part of the existence of every human being.

CLIENTELE-CENTERED ORGANIZATION

The theory of clientele-centered organization proposes that the individual to be served take precedence over the other bases of organization. A doctor in private practice can easily be clientele-centered. He serves but one patient at a time. He is capable of centering his interest on the individual. It is this attribute of focusing attention on the individual which permits an organization to be founded on the client-centered theory.

Some educational thinkers, led by the theories of William James and John Dewey, have proposed the child-centered school as the proper base of school organization. It is conceivable that a clientele-centered school would be operable in a limited situation with a small number of students to deal with. Assuming the number of students was limited, it would be possible to emphasize the individual in a school for the blind or mentally retarded due to the common characteristics of each. But we are dealing with large schools and large student bodies, whether we like it or not, and the sheer weight of numbers will preclude the type of individual treatment necessary to conform to the clientele-centered theory. Robert Hutchens, an avowed opponent of the progressive school makes the following critical statement regarding this theory: "We are dealing with individuals. Individuals are different. Hence no curriculum is worth developing. Each individual must receive different treatment. Whatever interests him is what he should study. This is the doctrine of what is called Progressive Education."¹¹

To place the primary emphasis of the school on serving the individual student would be foolhardy, if not completely impossible. It is surely not my intention to place little or no importance on the individual student. I am merely pointing out that something else, in some degree, must take preference over the individual student.

Earlier, a school was defined as a social institution. If this view is held, then the possibility exists that a society as a group might well be the clients of the school rather than the separate student. Schools, in this case, would educate youngsters that society might be better served. The needs of society, not the needs of youngsters, would dictate the program of studies. Educational objectives of a more permanent nature could be developed since individual needs would be synthesized into the needs of society as a whole. Yet, I must admit this is stretching a point in order

¹¹ Robert M. Hutchens, "The Philosophy of Education," in R. H. Montgomery (ed.) *The William Rainey Harper Memorial Conference* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938) as quoted in John S. Brubacher (ed.), *Eclectic Philosophy of Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1958. P. 42.

to find a defensible basis for the clientele-centered theory for the public schools.

PROCESS ORGANIZATION

The process of the school is formal instruction in various fields of knowledge. The components of the process are the teacher, the student, and the curriculum. Each is important in its place as are the components of a fire-fighting force. Without organized direction and a fire hose pumping water, the fireman is useless. All components of the educational process must be in working order if the outcome is to be achieved. This outcome is education of youth if the process has functioned properly. The program, the personnel, the immediate objectives, and the method all can change. To build a social institution on any of these bases is to build on sand. "Only the process itself has any finality"¹² and an enduring institution must be built upon foundations which are ageless.

Process, formal instruction, distinguishes the school from all other social agencies which contribute to the education of the citizenry. All else is of secondary nature. This is the peculiar trait of the school which must stand as its underlying foundation.

The omission of any discussion of area has been purposely done since I can find little to justify using it as a basis for school organization other than the fact that districts are set up for the sake of either expediency or efficiency.

Following the determination of the base of organization, process in the case of the school, the formal structure must be developed. Traditionally, this has been the line-and-staff concept, sometimes recognized as the hierarchical pattern.

HIERARCHICAL CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATION

The typical organizational pattern is pyramidal in design. All authority ultimately flows from the one person stationed at the peak of the triangle. The organization of the Catholic Church is an excellent example of this principle. James Mooney, when discussing the Catholic Church, points this out by stating: "The supreme coordinating authority, represented in the Pope, exercises its own leadership, which is always the case in forms of organization where this authority is represented in one absolute head."¹³ Pyramidal structure might well be termed Thomist in nature. Even so, virtually all organizations, even those considered democratic in nature, are formed about this traditional pattern.

The public schools of this country did not accept line-and-staff organization solely because it fit the type of operation. The concept was accepted more or less by default because it was already being used in other types of organization. Alfred Skogsberg emphasized this by pointing out that: "This conception did not arise out of the needs of the organi-

¹² Moehlman, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

¹³ Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

zation but was a copy of the centralized administration developed by the expanding business corporations during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries."¹⁴ Nothing innate in school organization exists which dictates the use of line-and-staff as a working concept. Nevertheless, it is the prevalent view at the present time.

The underlying purposes behind the hierarchical concept are that they "show the official lines of authority, the various functional units of organization, responsibilities of the different units, and the established channels of communication."¹⁵ This statement is intended to explain how persons, when grouped together to achieve a common purpose, are coordinated to achieve the desired end. Whether or not beings actually perform in the specified manner matters not. They shall be molded to conform. It must be remembered that organization, as defined by Latham, is an *idea*. The above statement is the composition of the *idea* of pyramidal organization and numerous principles have been developed to substantiate the pyramidal concept.

LINE-STAFF CONCEPT

The line-and-staff concept is the form which is popular in the minds of men as being the form of all organization, the triangle. It is an idea of the working, interpersonal relations within a group. Mooney refers to this as the scalar principle which "means the grading of duties, not according to functions . . . but according to degrees of authority and corresponding responsibility."¹⁶ Decision stems from the upper levels of the "line." Staff positions are determined by the fact that they assist in carrying out the decisions of the administrative officers. Staff units might well be considered as the operating as opposed to the decision-making units.

This principle is defined by Herbert Simon in the following manner: "Administrative efficiency is increased by arranging the members of the group in a determinate hierarchy of authority."¹⁷ The purpose of such an arrangement as the scalar diagram is to avoid conflicts in the issuing and carrying out of orders. Since it is humanly impossible for a person to carry out more than one order at a time, there is no fear of conflict. Regarding this, Simon further states that, "If unity of command is a principle of administration, it must assert something more than this physical impossibility."¹⁸

Communication within the hierarchical organization is intended to follow the lines which compose the pyramidal structure. Dr. Gregg points

¹⁴ Skogsberg, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

¹⁵ Russell T. Gregg, "The Administrative Process," in R. R. Campbell and R. T. Gregg (eds.) *Administrative Behavior in Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1957. P. 287.

¹⁶ Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

¹⁷ Herbert Simon. *Administrative Behavior*. New York: The MacMillan Company. 1957. P. 21.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

this out as one of the fundamental purposes of the line-and-staff concept. One must conclude that the "message laboriously moves from one level to another until it reaches its ultimate recipient. Theoretically, communication can follow the line directionally up as well as down. Since a superior has an open channel to his subordinate, it seems reasonable to assume that this same path could be used by the subordinate in his relations with his superior. Unfortunately, many barriers to upward communication are found in all types of organizations, including school systems."¹⁹ This block might be attributed to the inaccessibility of the administrator, long, complicated channels to follow, or lack of willingness on the part of the superior to "tune in" on the communication if it is directed from below.

Herbert Simon adds the horizontal factor to the vertical channel of communication. On communication, he says, "It is a process that takes place upward, downward, and laterally through the organization."²⁰ According to Simon, those on the same level of the pyramidal structure could readily communicate with one another. Apparently he ignores the fact that no "line" exists to account for this. Strictly speaking, communication could exist on the same level, but the message would have to move from the subordinate to his superior, from this point across the line to someone else on his level and hence down to his subordinate, the communicatee. How, I must admit this is an unwieldy process. Yet the structure indicates that this is the situation, and it is in accord with the traditionalist view of vertical communication.

A very crucial point is raised by Simon in regard to the rigid vertical channels of communication. While discussing a principle of organization, unity of command as set forth by Luther Gulick, he makes the following observation: "However, if unity of command, in Gulick's sense, is observed, the decisions of a person at any point in the administrative hierarchy are subject to influence through only one channel of authority; and if his decisions are of a kind that requires expertise in more than one field of knowledge, then advisory and informational services must be relied upon to supply those premises which lie in a field not recognized by the mode of specialization in the organization."²¹ Vertical communication, then, precludes an administrator from referring to experts in other areas within the organization in arriving at intelligent decisions. This is true because of the line structure of pyramidal organization which does not take this real need into consideration. The void of isolation separates the administrator from those who might add considered judgment to a decision of import.

Criticism can be leveled at the line-and-staff concept on various points. The base premise, unity of command, is groundless since it is physically impossible to avoid it. Communication tends to be vertical in movement

¹⁹ Gregg, *op. cit.*, p. 297.

²⁰ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 155.

²¹ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

and unwieldy at best. Administrators find themselves isolated from others who might aid in forming an intelligent decision. The concept is inescapably rigid in all respects.

The line-and-staff concept contains three principles which, according to Mooney,²² comprise the body of scientific organization. These principles are leadership, delegation, and functional definition.

LEADERSHIP

Leadership, according to Mooney, represents authority. A man is the leader because of his position on the hierarchical triangle. His position is that of supreme coordinating authority of all activities of the group, and his will can be asserted upon the subordinate members of the organization. This "assumes that the group innately is a rabble of unorganized individuals and that order, when it appears, is a reflection of the god-chief's creative logic."²³

Leadership, in the hierarchical arrangement, is authority. It is the type of leadership engendered by the pyramidal concept. The goals of the group are those of the leader because they are determined by either him or his staff. Authority is the ruling force.

Since this is true, it becomes obvious that the goals of the organization are not necessarily those of the group members. The force with which the group works toward achieving the organization goals depends upon authority, not some inner desire to contribute. This places the efficiency of the organization in an extremely vulnerable position. "It seems undeniably true that authoritarianism in a situation may be measured by the extent to which the members of a group play follow the leader."²⁴ Should the members of the group choose not to follow, unrest, chaos, and discouragement might be the active forces rather than a striving to fulfill the organizational goals.

Hierarchical authority can further be criticized on the basis of not fully utilizing the human power within the group. When all decisions stem from above, it seems natural to rely ultimately upon the upper strata for all ideas and motivation. This undesirable by-product is given adequate expression by Russell T. Gregg who observes that, "In the authoritarian organization, staff members learn to depend upon the leader for definition of goals and preparation of plans. The creative potentialities of the group are not utilized."²⁵ Authoritarian leadership reaps, not the best in men, but submissiveness and dependence. Creativity becomes lost under the pall of authority.

Authoritarian leadership, engendered by a hierarchical concept of organization—indeed is its very cornerstone—can be criticized from

²² Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

²³ Latham, *op. cit.*, p. 111.

²⁴ Orin B. Graff and Calvin M. Street, "Developing a Value Framework for Educational Administration," in R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg (eds.), *Administrative Behavior in Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1957. P. 151.

²⁵ Gregg, *op. cit.*, p. 284.

various points. Authority has been laid bare and has not withstood close scrutiny. Indeed, it seems a rather unenviable position in which to find one's self due to its extreme vulnerability.

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

Authority, when not able to operate in a direct relationship, utilizes another principle of hierarchical organization. This is delegation of authority. Delegated authority is the authoritarian leader's extension of himself and carries his desires, which he cannot personally convey, to the line. "Delegation means the conferring of a specified authority by a higher authority."²⁶ The transference follows the line of the scalar diagram and it is by this means that the person in ultimate authority contrives to pierce the depths of the structure to reach the line.

The intention of delegation is not the release of authority. The mere conferring of power does not remove the ultimate authority from the leader since the delegatee is, for all intents and purposes, an extension of the leader. This power might be likened to the tentacles of an octopus encompassing all within the structure.

Nor does delegation alter the relationships found within the hierarchical structure. The recipient of a delegated power is still subordinate to the one above, holding power at the whim of his superior. Mooney makes the following observation regarding his situation: "This, however, does not alter the relation between superior and subordinate in the scalar chain."²⁷ The holder of delegated power finds himself in a somewhat untenable position because his position on the scale has not changed and his authority is, at best, a temporary situation which can be altered at the whim of his superior.

Criticism can be leveled at this bulwark of hierarchy on two counts. Russell T. Gregg while writing on school organization criticizes delegation on the following grounds: "The line and staff organization has placed strong emphasis on the delegation of authority and responsibility. Often, especially in larger school systems, this has resulted in an elaborate pyramidal structure of an impersonal, rigid character."²⁸ As the internal organization grows, the superior finds it necessary to delegate to more and more subordinates. This, in itself, tends to stimulate growth until the organization becomes the complex, formidable mechanism that is so familiar in our society today. Elongation of the pyramid, as I shall point out later, violates another principle of organization propounded by James Mooney and Lyndall Urwick.

Skogsberg criticizes delegation on entirely different, though no less important, grounds. It is not the enlarging of the pyramidal structure which concerns him, but rather the realization of the full utilization of the human resources within the group. "The rigidity of the organization re-

²⁶ Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

²⁷ Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

²⁸ Gregg, *op. cit.*, p. 284.

inforced stability to the point where it throttled flexibility and adaptability."²⁹ Delegation of authority leads to suppression of the creative potential of the group when a maze of organizational lines discourages communication within the group.

Delegation of authority can be castigated on the basis that it will ultimately produce a tangled maze of connective lines which will promote a huge, complicated pattern. Rigidity will follow and stagnation of the creative power of the group will result.

FUNCTIONAL DEFINITION

An examination of Mooney's next organization principle, functional definition, is now in order. "It is the scalar form through which leadership delegates to each subordinate his own specific task."³⁰ In brief, this principle embodies the often-heard principle of specialization. Herbert Simon words it somewhat differently. He states that "administrative efficiency is increased by a specialization of the task among the group."³¹ Every member has a special job to perform, and he must now stray from his special niche. By this rule, the organization quite distinctly resembles the modern machine and human beings become the working parts—the gears and the wheels. Evidence of this can be shown by a statement of Urwick: "The work of every person in the organization should be confined as far as possible to the performance of a single leading function."³²

Every person becomes a working part and no room remains for creativity or initiative for the growth of the individual. The obviousness of the criticism of this leading principle is ridiculous. I use Herbert Simon again as he succinctly refutes functional definition: "Specialization merely means that different persons are doing different things—and since it is physically impossible for two persons to be doing the same thing in the same place at the same time, two persons are always doing different things."³³

Concurrence with this statement must lead to the conclusion that specialization is not a principle of organization but a truism of life and need not be raised in status to a principle due to the very nature of the question. Needless to say, the subordinate is placed in his niche at the whim of authority.

This arbitrary manipulation of persons is contrary to human nature and ignores the very thing which will enable the subordinate to function intelligently. Robert Johnson writing in the *Harvard Business Review* says that, "Men wish to be consulted about the policies they must execute."³⁴ Through an understanding of the contribution of the various

²⁹ Skogsberg, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

³⁰ Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

³¹ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

³² Lyndall Urwick. *The Elements of Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1943. P. 48.

³³ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

³⁴ Robert Wood Johnson, "Human Relations in Modern Business." *Harvard Business Review*, 27:531. September 1949. P. 531.

functions, the members become an intelligent body of human beings. Absolute segmentation, dictated by specialization, does not permit this and thus group members are ignorant of all but their small world within the organizational universe.

The principles of organization as set forth by Mooney have been stated and examined. All three are vulnerable to attack not being able to stand the test of either democracy or humanism. It is also apparent that these principles do not stand the test of common sense. This was stressed by Herbert Simon.

Scientific writers on organization often quote one other well-known parable on organization. This dictum states that a superior should have no more than a given number of workers directly under his authority. Urwick is quite specific on this: "No superior can supervise directly the work of more than five or at the most six subordinates whose work interlocks."³⁵ The span of control of a person in a supervisory capacity must be limited for the sake of efficiency. No one can adequately control more than a small group. Herbert Simon states this in the following manner: "Administrative efficiency is increased by limiting the span of control at any point in the hierarchy to a small number."³⁶ What effect does this have on the pattern as the organization grows?

Quite obviously, with growth comes an increase in personnel. Thus, more supervisory positions are needed to control the subordinate workers. This, in turn, leads directly to vertical growth of the organizational pattern. A direct conflict can be shown between this and one other tenet of organization.

This may be illustrated by drawing once again upon Herbert Simon: "Administrative efficiency is enhanced by keeping at a minimum the number of organizational levels through which a matter must pass before it is acted upon."³⁷ In an expanding organization it would be impossible to limit the span of control and, at the same time, limit the levels of organization. A direct contradiction exists between these two principles.

An extremely vertical organization will cause inefficiency due to the number of administrative levels through which communications must pass. Yet elongation must occur if the principle of span of control is followed. Increase the supervisory steps and the triangle is lengthened. Enlarge the pattern, and you lose efficiency. This dilemma, if the hierarchical pattern is followed, is unsolvable.

HIERARCHICAL DESIGN AND HUMAN NATURE

The principles of line-and-staff organization have been exposed. They have not withstood close scrutiny. A consideration of the effects of this concept on human beings will now be presented.

³⁵ Urwick, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

³⁶ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

³⁷ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

It has been stressed, throughout, that the prevalent formal concept of organization is pyramidal and hierarchical in origin. It is Thomist in philosophy and was conceived to carry out the view of authority from above. If it can be assumed that those who comprise organization hold with this philosophy, then operation is consistent with the design. Yet, if it is held that those who carry out decisions should contribute to the making of decisions, then, realistically, a different concept of organization should be developed to facilitate such a humanistic ideal.

It seems incompatible to attempt to superimpose an operating organization based on democratic, humanistic values onto a design which, by origin and nature, is hierarchical. To do so would surely dichotomize those in authority into beings who might well be termed pragmatic idealists, neither fish nor fowl. Confusion must surely result at the operating level as well since a conflict of values would be obvious here, also. People play *the* role of organization for the rather obvious reason that they are the organization. They are the substance of organization. But the hierarchical concept ignores this fact and the effects that such a design has on human beings. Chris Argyris summarizes these effects: "It is becoming increasingly clear that through such principles as task specialization and unity of command we are creating organizations that foster psychological dependence, submissiveness, and leader-centeredness. These conditions, in turn, provide the basis for conflict, hostility, frustration, and tension."²⁸ This presents a dire warning if we cherish human beings and individualism as highly as we like to believe. If Argyris is correct, little is left of human dignity in hierarchical organization.

Regarding school organization, the operating concept has been accepted more or less by default. The idea seemed to work in business and was, therefore, accepted by public administrators. "The assumption so often made in administrative studies, that an arrangement is effective because it exists, is a circular argument of the worst sort."²⁹ This is precisely the path which has been followed blindly in practice with no thought other than it worked for someone else.

No longer must we blindly acquiesce to an idea which is directly opposed to our democratic values. Not only are the so-called principles of hierarchical organization but shaky myths, they are not in sympathy with the values of democracy.

It might well be asked what effect authoritarian organization in the public schools has on youngsters who are being taught the ideals of democracy. Children are not blind nor are they innately stupid. By mere observation, it should be clear to them that what is being taught in the classroom regarding human dignity and democracy is not in accord with the operation of the school. The type of organization fitting for the school is presented by Burton and Brueckner. "Persons involved are definitely

²⁸ Chris Argyris. *Executive Leadership: An Appraisal of a Manager in Action*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1953. P. 110.

²⁹ Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 247.

subordinate to the desired ends and the processes for securing the ends. Doing and doing by formula is the desired thing. Education deals with the development of unique personalities and with the enhancement of an emergent, experimental civilization. The staff operating the educational system is, moreover, made up of persons who should find growth and satisfaction in their work. The products and the processes not only should not be standardized but can be standardized only with dire results. Organization in education must provide for doing as it does in business, but in addition, must provide for creative thinking and individual contributions."⁴⁰ Through such a concept of organization, the student would be able to perceive the working tenets of our democratic way of life. Understanding, rather than confusion, would result, because our democratic principles would be placed in action rather than in words alone.

The foundations of line-and-staff organization have now been undermined and the structure is in a sad state of disrepair. It seems almost unfair to proceed further, but I wish to present one statement of what organization *is not*. The following statement is made by Robert Roy, an acting administrator: "Organization behavior does *not* conform to conventional line, staff, and functional notions; charts do *not* convey a complete or accurate picture of organization; the administrator does *not* act with freedom; organizations often are *not* efficient; corrective action is *not* prescribable."⁴¹ Let me add that corrective action is not prescribable within the hierarchical frame of reference.

⁴⁰ Burton and Brueckner, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

⁴¹ Robert L. Roy. *The Administrative Process*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1958. Pp. 47-48.

Duties of Tennessee High School Principals

FLOYD L. BASS

THE uniqueness of the high school in the United States has been described both by recognized authorities in secondary-school administration and by the constructive criticisms of laymen. However, the responsibility for interpreting the role of the high school in local communities has been delegated to public school officials designated as principals. The nature of the high school as an educational institution has also been examined by means of appraisals of the duties of high-school principals, the patterns of organization within which they operate, the manner in which they schedule their time, and the challenges which confront them. The general role of a principal has been defined in a survey of education in Tennessee as follows: "The principal should be the professionally qualified educational leader responsible for the administration of the school and should have the authority and resources needed for the task."¹

This description does not suggest a difference between the elementary- and the high-school principalship. A study of the high-school principalship in Tennessee sought to appraise the role of these administrators, and describe the uniqueness of their activities.²

A check list of 102 duties of high-school principals was prepared and submitted to a jury of twenty-five selected authorities in the field of high-school administration. This check list was also circulated among seventy-six Tennessee high-school principals in schools with fifteen or more teachers, and ranging in enrollments between three hundred and three thousand students. The foregoing numbers of respondents represented 80 per cent of the members of the jury and Tennessee high-school principals contacted.

HIGH-SCHOOL AND STAFF ORGANIZATION

The two types of high schools in Tennessee have been defined by state statutes as: (1) junior high schools, and (2) senior high schools. All junior high schools have been organized in accord with one of the three forms: *Form I*, grades nine and ten; *Form II*, grades seven, eight, and

¹ James E. Gibbs. *Public Education in Tennessee*. Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1957. P. 60.

² Floyd L. Bass, "A Study of Certification Standards in Relation to the Duties and Responsibilities of the Tennessee High-School Principalship" (Unpublished Doctoral thesis, University of Colorado, 1960).

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nine; or *Form III*, grades seven, eight, nine, and ten. Senior high schools have been defined by Tennessee school law as: (1) schools which included grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve; and (2) schools which included grades ten, eleven, and twelve.

Regulations of the Tennessee Board of Education have defined the principalship as an additional teaching position, assigned and designated as supervising principal in schools using and qualifying for fifteen or more teachers. The principalship administers the entire program of the school with emphasis upon planning, supervising, and carrying out an improved instructional program.

Patterns of organization in the high school. The common pattern of Tennessee public school organization has been the one through twelve or twelve-grade plan. The nine through twelve grade pattern of high-school organization included approximately 25 per cent of the total number of schools with one or more of these four grades. The six-grade pattern, grades seven through twelve, comprised about 10 per cent of the 504 high schools in Tennessee. The remaining patterns of organization each ranged below 5 per cent of the total number of high schools. A total of ninety-five of the 137 senior high schools in Tennessee employed fifteen or more teachers, and ranged in enrollments between three hundred and three thousand students.

Twenty-three of the thirty-five high schools with an enrollment between three hundred and 499 students revealed an average population of 437 students and eighteen teachers. Twenty-three of the twenty-seven high schools with an enrollment between five hundred and 699 students revealed an average population of 573 students and twenty-one teachers. Sixteen of the seventeen high schools with an enrollment between seven hundred and 899 students revealed an average population of 785 students and twenty-eight teachers. Fourteen of the sixteen high schools with an enrollment of 900 or more students revealed an average population of 1,179 students and forty-six teachers.

Instructional staff in the high school. The numerical strength of the teaching staff in Tennessee high schools would appear to be adequate for the instructional purposes of secondary education, and the scope of this study has not provided for an examination of the quality of the instructional staff. The average class load of twenty-six students for each teacher in these seventy-six high schools could be misleading without viewing this in relation to the total range in enrollment in each of the foregoing categories. Some of the smaller high schools revealed a teacher-student ratio as low as fifteen students for each teacher, and as many as thirty-five students for each teacher in some of the larger high schools.

Accreditation status of the high schools. Each of the seventy-six high schools has been approved by the Tennessee Department of Education, and fifty were approved or accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The number of Tennessee high schools represented in this study, and accredited by the Southern Association of

Colleges and Secondary Schools, increased from less than 50 per cent following the 1951-1952 school year of 66 per cent at present.

Although some progress has been made regarding the accreditation of these schools, one third of them was not accredited by the regional accrediting agency. There were ten unaccredited high schools in each of the two lower enrollment categories, below seven hundred students, yet the number of the larger high schools similarly unaccredited should be a cause for concern.

Administrative personnel in the high school. The present study attempted to ascertain the types of assistance afforded Tennessee high-school principals: (1) on a full-time basis exclusive of teaching responsibilities; (2) on a part-time basis with a maximum of half-time teaching responsibilities; and (3) on the more general basis of availability on-call from the central administrative offices of the school system.

A large majority of the respondents, 91 per cent, reported a full-time librarian. The director of athletics was reported by 53 per cent of the principals as a full-time non-teaching staff member. Nearly two out of three, 62 per cent, of the responding principals reported the services of a full-time clerk as a source of assistance not purely administrative, but quite essential.

A regulation of the Tennessee Department of Education requiring a full-time librarian in high schools with an enrollment of three hundred or more students apparently accounted for the sizable number of librarians reported by Tennessee high-school principals. This may not explain why one in ten of these high schools, supported by state funds, assigned the librarian on a half-time or some less regular basis.

The emphasis generally given to inter-scholastic athletics in high schools was reflected in the allocation of responsibility in this area to the director of athletics. The two principals out of seven who reported no assistance in this area primarily represented the smaller high schools. A similar proportion of the principals also failed to report any type of clerical assistance in their high schools.

The director of guidance was most frequently reported as the type of assistance available on a part-time basis with a maximum of half-time teaching responsibilities in 35 per cent of the high schools. The three most frequently reported types of personnel available on-call were the supervisor of instruction in 30 per cent of the high schools, and the nurse and the school psychologist, each in approximately 20 per cent of the high schools.

The director of guidance and the assistant principalship were the positions most frequently reported as needed additions to the high-school staff, both on a full-time and on a part-time basis. Each of these positions was reported by fewer than one third of the principals as present sources of assistance.

The assistant principalship in Tennessee high schools was not included in the five most frequently reported full-time positions, while in the

quarter of a century old study made by Englehardt and others this area of administrative assistance was indicated most often by a majority of the respondents.³ The position for a dean of girls and a dean of boys, often sources of guidance assistance for the principal, were also reported very infrequently.

The typical Tennessee high school employed twenty-six teachers and six members of the non-teaching staff, and enrolled 697 students in a school plant with two classroom buildings and twenty-eight classrooms.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' TIME

An attempt was made to ascertain the amount of time Tennessee high-school principals devote to their various duties, and to secure their appraisal of the most desirable amounts of time which they would like to be able to spend in these areas. The selected jury of authorities was asked to designate most desirable time requirements for the various duties in the eight areas: administration, supervision, guidance, public relations, clerical, research, teaching, and other responsibilities. The actual amounts of time which principals reported that they spend in these eight areas have been presented in Table I, and the most desirable time requirements in these areas designated by principals have been presented in Table II. A comparison of the time requirements for the duties of the high-school principalship reported by the Tennessee principals with those described by the jury has been presented in Table III.

Actual time requirements of duties of high-school principals. Tennessee high-school principals were generally in agreement regarding the amount of time spent in their various types of duties. Approximately three fourths of the principals' time was reported as spent in the three

TABLE I. Percentage of Time Spent in Various Duties
by Tennessee High-School Principals

AREAS OF DUTIES*	300-499	500-699	700-899	900 or more	Total
Administrative.....	42.26	46.36	47.08	47.72	45.32
Supervisory.....	17.26	19.50	20.83	23.72	19.64
Guidance.....	12.30	11.68	10.00	11.09	11.50
Public Relations.....	8.78	8.77	7.33	8.64	8.50
Clerical.....	11.30	5.50	7.91	3.18	7.51
Research.....	3.17	4.54	3.91	4.27	3.92
Other.....	1.65	2.13	2.75	.90	1.88
Teaching.....	3.13	1.50	.16	.45	1.64
Total.....	99.65	99.98	99.97	99.97	99.91

*Areas of duties listed according to the frequency or total average percentage reported in the right-hand column.

³ F. Englehardt, et. al., "Administration and Supervision," *National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph Number 11* (Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, Bulletin Number 17, 1932), pp. 35-53.

TABLE II. Percentage of Time Considered Most Desirable to Spend in Various Duties by Tennessee High-School Principals

AREAS OF DUTIES*	300-499	500-699	700-899	900 or more	Total
Administrative.....	33.42	35.95	38.84	35.00	35.66
Supervisory.....	26.68	27.38	30.38	39.28	29.20
Guidance.....	14.47	13.38	13.07	10.00	13.26
Public Relations.....	10.10	10.28	8.46	9.28	9.71
Research.....	7.52	9.04	4.69	3.57	6.98
Clerical.....	2.36	1.52	3.00	.71	2.01
Other.....	2.47	1.00	1.15	2.14	1.63
Teaching.....	2.42	1.42	.38	.00	1.35
Total.....	99.44	99.97	99.97	99.98	99.80

*Areas of duties listed according to the frequency or total average percentage reported in the right-hand column.

TABLE III. A Comparison of the Time Requirements for Duties of the High-School Principalship Reported by the Principals with Those Considered as Desirable by the Jury

AREAS OF DUTIES*	Principals Reported		Jury Reported		
	Actual Per cent	Most desirable Per cent	Most desirable Per cent	Satisfactory range	
				Per cent	Per cent
Supervisory.....	19.64	29.20	35.50	27.35	47.05
Administrative.....	45.32	35.66	31.81	19.70	39.41
Guidance.....	11.50	13.26	11.22	8.64	21.88
Public Relations.....	8.50	9.71	9.72	7.52	17.17
Research.....	3.92	6.98	7.77	5.17	14.00
Other.....	1.88	1.63	2.81	1.05	4.00
Teaching.....	1.64	1.35	.77	.00	3.82
Clerical.....	7.51	2.01	.36	.11	1.82
Total.....	99.91	99.80	99.96		

*Areas of duties listed according to the frequencies of most desirable percentages described by the jury in the center column.

areas: (1) 45 per cent in administration; (2) 20 per cent in supervision; and (3) 12 per cent in guidance. Principals in high schools with the smallest enrollments reported slightly more time spent in clerical than in public relations duties. Principals in the larger high schools reported more time spent in research than was devoted to clerical responsibilities.

Desirable time requirements of duties of high-school principals. Although Tennessee high-school principals spend three fourths of their time in administrative, supervisory, and guidance duties, they indicated that the disproportionate amounts of time spent in administration and supervision were not desirable. Principals in the larger schools indicated that more time should be devoted to supervisory duties than should be spent in administrative duties. The jury evidenced agreement with this

apportionment of the high-school principals' time in supervisory and administrative duties. However, the average distribution of time reported as most desirable by the principals was 36 per cent for administration, and 29 per cent for supervision. The amounts of time which were designated as most desirable in these two areas by the jury averaged 32 per cent for administration and 36 per cent for supervision.

Guidance, public relations, and research duties were listed in that order by the responses of both the principals and the jury in describing the actual and most desirable time requirements for these responsibilities. Teaching responsibilities were reported least frequently by the principals, while the jury reported that clerical duties should receive less of the principals' time than teaching duties. Miscellaneous duties—conferences with parents, disciplinary concerns, receiving visitors, and others—were mentioned by both groups of respondents with a slightly greater frequency than that reported for teaching duties of high-school principals.

The jury also reported satisfactory ranges for the time requirements in each of the eight areas. The average percentages for the minimum and maximum amounts of time allocated in each of these areas obviously overlap, but the various duties of high-school principals were ranked in the following order: supervisory, administrative, guidance, public relations, research, miscellaneous, teaching, and clerical.

Although the circumstances of the Tennessee high-school principalship may have contributed to an inequitable allocation of the administrator's time, these principals recognized the need for a modification of the factors influencing the amount of time spent in the performance of their duties.

MOST DIFFICULT CHALLENGES CONFRONTING HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The examination of current procedures and practices in the Tennessee high-school principalship included a consideration of the most difficult challenges faced by these administrators. The critical problems reported by these principals have been classified and ranked according to the frequencies of their quoted occurrences.

Critical problems reported by the principals. Between 20 and 35 per cent of the Tennessee high-school principals indicated a variety of challenges which have been grouped into the following five categories: (1) encouraging acceptable student performance; (2) projecting an educationally sound financial program for the high school; (3) inspiring high-school teachers to exercise their initiative; (4) attracting an able and industrious high-school staff; and (5) managing general administrative procedures. The order of listings for the foregoing categories was based on a minimum response from one out of five of the Tennessee high-school principals.

Tennessee high-school principals indicated that the general management of their responsibilities represented a less difficult challenge than such factors as a lack of money, and the availability of competent and dedicated teachers. More regular and profitable attendance on the part

of students was described as dependent upon needed resources which could make the high school more attractive for these young people and their parents.

Critical problems reported by the jury. Between 25 and 40 per cent of the members of the jury described the challenges facing high-school principals. These were grouped in the following categories: (1) attracting an able and industrious high-school staff; (2) encouraging acceptable student performance; (3) making information about the program of the high school available to the public; and (4) directing investigations regarding the role of the high school in relation to that of other community agencies. The order of listing for the foregoing categories was based on a minimum response from one out of four of the members of the jury.

Concern was evidenced by the jury for the increasing number of factors encroaching upon the professional status of the high-school principalship. Although there was common concern by both Tennessee high-school principals and the jury for competent teachers, the jury seemed to imply that the increasing variety of the duties of the high-school principalship represented the outstanding challenge in secondary administration.

PROFILE OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

A description of current duties and responsibilities of the Tennessee high-school principalship may aid future attempts to improve services rendered by these administrators. A total of thirty of the 102 duties included in the check list circulated among Tennessee high-school principals was regarded as major professional duties according to the responses of a majority, 50 per cent or more, of the respondents. The following listings, according to the frequency of their responses, include the major professional duties of Tennessee high-school principals which were performed by the principals, shared with, or delegated among members of the high-school staff. Tennessee high-school principals:

1. Assign teachers to classes
2. Regulate, permit, or prohibit advertising or exhibits in the building
3. Handle complaints of parents
4. Direct and control custodial services
5. Cooperate with juvenile court authorities and other law enforcement agencies
6. Visit new teachers and other personnel when it is necessary
7. Make unscheduled visits in all of the classes
8. Study the interests, abilities, talents, experiences, and training of staff members
9. Plan, conduct, and follow-up the results of individual conferences with teachers
10. Attend, plan, conduct, or follow-up the results of general faculty meetings
11. Make scheduled visits in all of the classes
12. Encourage teachers to participate in research studies involving the high-school curriculum

13. Transfer or recommend the transfer of a teacher from one position to another
14. Keep teachers and other employees informed regarding the purposes and policies of the school
15. Provide space for community activities
16. Address community groups or organizations
17. Cooperate with other community agencies which are concerned with the welfare of youth
18. Record and report teachers' attendance
19. Requisition supplies and equipment for teachers and other school employees

Responsibilities of the Tennessee high-school principalship were shared with members of the staff in order to:

1. Develop a continuing in-service program for school personnel
2. Determine what subjects and how many subjects pupils may carry
3. Give direction to the social problems of pupils and in disciplinary situations
4. Plan, conduct, and follow-up the results of testing programs
5. Assist pupils in securing employment
6. Provide opportunities for pupils to develop special talents
7. Supply correct information about occupations
8. Plan, direct, or advise concerning exhibitions of school work
9. Secure the cooperation of the alumni of the school
10. Prepare articles or releases for the newspaper, radio, and other news media
11. Edit or contribute to supervisory bulletins and circulars

None of the major professional duties and responsibilities of the Tennessee high-school principalship was revealed as types to be delegated among members of the staff.

PROFILE OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP REPORTED BY THE JURY

The responses of a majority, 50 per cent or more, of the members of the jury provide a comparison of the major professional duties of Tennessee high-school principals with those duties considered as desirable by the jury. The jury reported that principals should:

1. Assign teachers to classes
2. Regulate, permit, or prohibit advertising or exhibits in the building
3. Visit new teachers and other personnel when it is necessary
4. Plan, conduct, and follow-up the results of individual conferences with teachers
5. Transfer or recommend the transfer of a teacher from one position to another
6. Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for further training
7. Study the interests, abilities, talents, experiences, and training of staff members
8. Make unscheduled visits in all of the classes
9. Make scheduled visits in all of the classes
10. Keep teachers and other employees informed regarding the purposes and policies of the school

The jury reported that high-school principals should share their responsibilities with members of the staff in order to:

1. Prepare the school budget
2. Handle complaints of parents
3. Cooperate with juvenile court authorities and other law enforcement agencies
4. Make the schedule of course offerings
5. Recommend teachers for employment in their schools
6. Conduct and apply research studies of instruction and learning
7. Develop a continuing in-service program for school personnel
8. Plan and follow-up the results of intervisitation by teachers
9. Help teachers to utilize newly introduced materials and equipment
10. Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically their own traits and activities
11. Attend, plan, conduct, or follow-up the results of general faculty meetings
12. Encourage teachers to participate in research studies involving the high-school curriculum
13. Determine what subjects and how many subjects pupils may carry
14. Give direction to the social problems of pupils and in disciplinary situations
15. Plan, conduct, and follow-up the results of testing programs
16. Plan, direct, or advise concerning exhibitions of school work
17. Cooperate with other community agencies which are concerned with the welfare of youth
18. Edit or contribute to supervisory bulletins and circulars
19. Prepare articles or releases for the newspaper, radio, and other news media
20. Secure the cooperation of the alumni of the school
21. Address community groups or organizations
22. Gather statistical data and make computations for the annual report of school activities

The jury reported that high-school principals should delegate certain responsibilities to members of the staff in order to:

1. Render follow-up service to pupils placed on jobs
2. Assist pupils in securing employment
3. Supply correct information about occupations
4. Make case studies of problem pupils
5. Aid students to develop the ability to locate and organize materials from a number of sources
6. Develop and maintain cumulative records of pupils
7. Make graphs of test results
8. Account for textbooks, library books, and teachers' reference books
9. Take the annual inventory of school materials and equipment
10. Check payroll lists and bank deposit slips
11. Escort parents and visitors to rooms
12. Record and report teachers' attendance
13. Assign students to classes, and arrange student transfers or course changes

SUMMARY

The responses of the principals and those of the jury seemingly imply that there is a need for increased assistance to Tennessee high-school principals for the proper performance of their administrative duties. It also appears that the principals themselves should express a greater degree of confidence in the interest and ability of subordinate officials in the administrative affairs of the programs of secondary education.

Tennessee high-school principals have functioned in the improvement of instruction more or less as trouble-shooters or when the circumstances of their own situations required supervisory assistance. These high-school principals could profit from a re-examination of their supervisory activities and the purposes of supervision in their own situations. Tennessee high-school principals have not provided leadership in guidance services, and, more important, have apparently not been concerned regarding the delegation of the responsibility for providing these services.

The pattern of the responses of the principals suggests that public relations duties too often have been assumed only by the school administrators. A clear pattern of uniformity in the manner of allocating the duties of the Tennessee high-school principalship may well be unwarranted. However, the extreme diversity of reported practices together with the minimum of agreement between those practices reported by principals and those described by the jury suggest the need for a comprehensive analysis of current professional performance.

Dead-End Recommendations

RELIS B. BROWN

RECOMMENDATIONS are assets of great value to the person recommended, and the nullification of this value by inconsideration should be grounds for civil suit in the court of the human conscience. Superintendents and principals may in a perfunctory moment undo a great deal of their own hard work and that of some of their teachers. An enterprising science teacher hopes to take advantage of the opportunity the National Science Foundation provides for a summer's experience at a university with other teachers. The application calls for recommendations. The busy administrator writes a hurried letter which says nothing to its reader. The teacher's application is passed over by some university professor who may be impressed with the teacher's record, but compares the recommendations with those of other able applicants, and, with a sigh of frustration or a snort of disgust, files the folder in the reject pile.

I have just recently played the role of this professor again, and the number of totally valueless recommendations from school officials I read appalled me. I kept no tabulation, but I have the feeling that about four out of five letters from superintendents and not quite as great a percentage of those from principals ought not to have been sent. The exact figures, like those of many educational problems, are not of primary importance. One such letter is too many.

I don't believe these officers set out to sabotage their teachers' efforts at self-improvement. It must be some combination of the press of other activities, insufficient thought, and inadequate knowledge of the teacher.

Considering the following letter, which with minor changes in wording appeared so many times, I wonder if it came from some "Handbook for Harried Executives" edited by a talented misanthrope:

"Dear sir:

* * * * *

"Mr Jigger Gismeaux has applied to your university for a National Science Foundation grant to participate in your summer program for science teachers.

"Mr. Gismeaux has been a member of our staff at Grassgirt High School for five years and he has rendered satisfactory service.

"We feel that he will benefit from his work at your school and will share his benefits with our students.

"If you wish any further information, we shall be happy to furnish it.

"Yours very truly,

HOWARD D. FOLKS, Superintendent."

HDF:bzb.

Relis B. Brown, 837 Pine Street, Tallahassee, Florida.

Four whole paragraphs! Certainly enough to satisfy the most exacting reader! But unfortunately it says nothing of importance to the persons evaluating the teacher's potential for benefiting by the opportunity. Let's examine this stock reply paragraph by paragraph.

The first paragraph tells the reader what the reader knows before he picks up the letter of recommendation. The value obtained from the paragraph is restricted to indicating the name of the person being recommended. This information could be conveyed by a brief "Re: Mr. Jigger Gismeaux" at the right above the text of the letter. But this would shorten the letter by a paragraph, the longest one, too, and threaten to make even more obvious the paucity of attention and interest the writer devoted to the letter.

The second paragraph establishes the length of time the teacher has taught at his school. This has no weight with the reader. During that five years, the teacher may have lifted an ordinary science department into a state of outstanding excellence. The teacher may have struggled hard to stimulate and train young minds to a skill in reasoning and understanding, laboring with a handicap in preparation which was not the fault of his own motivation and effort. Or he may have had, as one educator expressed it, "not five years' experience, but one year's experience five times," plodding along in the old rut like a weary but dutiful mole. Who knows? The paragraph refers to "satisfactory service." Unless I know personally the writer of the letter, I have no idea whether this is a polite phrase meaning: "He hasn't yet committed any moral offense of such magnitude that we had to fire him," or whether it means: "He's one of our top teachers, and we're lucky to have him on our staff." With today's fetish of professional courtesy, the presumption is the former. If he were really good, wouldn't the letter-writer have found enough enthusiasm to say so in prose a little more exciting than "he has rendered satisfactory service"?

The third paragraph says the writer expects the teacher to benefit by the summer's work if the teacher is accepted. The reader finds this patronizing, perhaps, but scarcely flattering or complimentary, though it may have been so intended. If the applicant doesn't receive any benefit from the experience, if he is accepted, the university should be put out of business, the National Science Foundation made a spectacular blunder and misappropriated public funds in a most infamous manner, and the applicant is totally unworthy of his post as a teacher. The whole point of the operation is to help the teacher improve himself and his future teaching, and if this is not a basic assumption in the process the entire enterprise is futile. When a parent sends his child to the superintendent's school, is it necessary for the parent to send a note saying, "We feel that our child will benefit from his work at your school"? Why else would children be sent to school? Don't answer that! I know it serves as a convenient tax-paid baby-sitter, just as a grant to a summer session at a university serves as a meal-ticket and room rent, but you know as well

as I that that is not the only benefit accruing. And the teacher could eat guinea hen under glass instead of hamburgers if he hired out to a road construction crew during the summer instead of going back to school, and have a diversion from his ordinary routine to boot.

The fourth paragraph offers generously to supply further information if it is called for. I believe the writer is perfectly safe in this offer. In the first place, the folders I have recently gone through numbered about two hundred and fifty from which twenty were to be chosen. Am I going to hold up my decisions while I write to two hundred superintendents and one hundred and seventy-five principals, saying, "What you said conveys no useful information whatsoever. Will you please get with it, find out something about Mr. Gismeaux, and tell me about his qualifications?" Four other professors must go over these folders, and our decision is to be in the mails within the week. In the second place, there is nothing in the letter of recommendation to lead me to believe the writer knows anything more to say, or would be any more informative the second time. On the contrary, what the letter says plainly between the lines is: "I don't know anything significant about Mr. Gismeaux, and the matter isn't important enough to me to stimulate me to try to find out."

It may be that some officers take the easy way out. They promise to write the letter, but know of nothing to say. So the letter is never written. Our files have many folders in which the applicant lists the names of those asked to write recommendations. A month later, the folder still does not have these recommendations. The favor to the teacher is only partly done when the recommendation is written, signed, and sent. The writer should then, in all courtesy, inform the teacher that the recommendation is on its way. This is a source of relief and satisfaction to the teacher, who feels awkward at coming in every other day to ask, "Well, have you written it yet?" It also is less embarrassing than the necessity for the teacher to ask the office secretary, "The University tells me they haven't received the boss' letter of recommendation yet. When is he going to get on the ball?"

My comments so far have been censorious. I am moved by a feeling of indignation at the injustice done to able and deserving teachers by unthinking superiors. But castigation is easier than therapy. What should a recommendation contain? The very first consideration is the purpose of the letter. This purpose *should be* to give its reader a basis for judging the qualifications of the teacher relative to those of other applicants. Surely the superintendents and principals have been on the receiving end of letters of recommendation, and know what information is needed. But perhaps in employing teachers, they can discount meaningless letters because they interview the applicants. This is not possible for those who study applications for summer grants. So the recommendation writer should, if he is thoughtful and considerate at all, put himself in the position of supplying all the information he can that he would want if his were the task of selection.

Fortunately, many of the recommendations I read recently were very helpful. They spoke of the enthusiasm and ability of the teacher, giving concrete evidence to support their contentions.

"Miss Brytize is an active leader in our local Audubon Society, supervises many entrants at our annual Science Fair, and has coached four district fair blue-ribbon winners and one third-place winner at the state fair."

"Mr. Werkorss stays after school about four days a week to work with students who need help or who are doing extra projects."

"Miss Farsite has long been advocating an advanced biology course for seniors; we have given her permission to inaugurate such a course next year."

"Mr. Spurzem has been very active in taking his physics and chemistry classes to local engineering and industrial establishments, showing them practical applications of the theory they learn in class and the methods they use in the laboratory."

"Miss Verve is one of the best-liked and most influential teachers in our system, and we have offered her a contract for next year at a substantial increase in salary. We consider ourselves fortunate to have such a dynamo in our school."

"Since Mrs. Lively began to teach our ninth-grade general science course, a considerably larger number of able students have elected our more advanced science courses, and the teachers of these courses report that Mrs. Lively's students come to them gratifyingly well prepared and enthusiastic about science."

One letter from a college professor was like a lush floral bower in a vast tundra because of its understanding of what was wanted, its ability to provide that information, and the delightful humor in which it was expressed. What a relief from the arid wastes of empty sentences through which I had been trudging!

I am happy to report that almost all of the letters from fellow teachers were quite helpful. They provided the sort of analysis we needed to evaluate and supported the analysis by evidence. Presumably these teachers, department heads, and science supervisors were asked because they knew from close contact with the teacher's work and from community of interest what the teacher had been doing and how to evaluate it. Blessings on these people; their help was gratefully appreciated.

The source of the faults in some recommendations may have been that the letter writer did not know the teacher's work, and could not conscientiously say anything good, bad, or indifferent. If such is the case, it would be far better for the person asked to write to decline, saying that someone better informed should be asked. It doesn't have to be a superintendent or principal. The reader of the letter will not be impressed by the office held by the writer except as it shows the writer's acquaintance with the teacher.

One of the letters I read came from a member of the state legislature, who was in no position to judge of the teacher's professional qualifications. This letter made an impression on at least one of its readers. The impression was that the teacher couldn't find enough people qualified to write a recommendation, and, in order to fill the quota of three, requested this letter. Well-meaning as the letter-writer was, it could not but count as a zero. Several letters by pastors fell in the same category—they testified as to the moral qualifications of the individual to participate in our society, but had nothing to offer by way of knowledge applicable to our problem of selection. It was like asking an able electrician to prescribe for the gout.

I don't know how to excuse poor grammar, punctuation, and spelling in letters of application and recommendation from educators. I was startled to read about the teacher who is to teach in the "nineth grade next year."

To summarize, may I make an earnest plea:

1. If you are asked to write a recommendation for someone, find out first the use to which this recommendation is to be put. If you are not qualified to provide information which will be helpful, courteously and firmly deny the request, and suggest if you can other people better qualified.

2. If you are qualified, give thought to the prospective reader of the recommendation, and anticipate the questions he would like to have answered.

3. Provide the answers by stating as clearly as possible all of the pertinent characteristics of the person you are recommending, omitting all the irrelevant ones.

4. Support your evaluation wherever you can by concrete evidence.

5. Make a point of telling the teacher the recommendation has been sent.

It is exasperating for a reader to receive a meaningless recommendation which saved the writer ten minutes' time and thought, and it is devastating to the teacher to be rejected for a place he deserves.

The Expense of Economy

HERBERT F. A. SMITH

THE sound of the mason's hammer on the chisel and the grinding of stone on stone made the art of conversation more difficult than usual in the little wine shop near the crest of a slope in Athens. The citizens who gathered there daily to contemplate the affairs of the world, never in need of an excuse to raise their voices in argument, today were making heroic attempts to overcome not only the noise from without, but also the assertions of each other.

The building activity nearby, as if to compensate for inconvenience, offered a ready subject for debate.

"It is costing us too dearly," declared Mesothenes, a stout, well-fed man in expensive apparel. "There's no need to build such a big edifice nor such a beautiful one. At least they say it is beautiful, but how a plain rectangular building with some pillars in front can be called beautiful is beyond my powers of reasoning! I know only that my taxes are already ruinous." With a gesture of finality, he quaffed deeply of the cup in front of him and wiped his lips on his costly silken sleeve.

"Not only is all that true," spoke up Praxites, obviously one of lesser financial stature who was seeking the approval of the wealthy Mesothenes, "but consider the site chosen. Surely a hilltop site could have been sold for a great sum for a rich man's dwelling. Who is going to benefit more from this building where it is to be than if it were placed in the outskirts of the city where land is of less worth? The city is certainly bleeding us who pay taxes. Why, the men overseeing those slaves are probably faring much better than we are. We who are clever enough to make money have to stand by and see it squandered by the state."

Leanytes was a soft-spoken man who took advantage in the lull in both the construction work and the outpourings of his companions to get in a word of his own. "We must be careful," he said, raising one hand in admonition, "not to make rash statements. It is true that the builders have promised us a beautiful building. Is this wrong? Is ugliness cheaper than beauty? Consider old Diomedes' house. He spent a large fortune building it to please his young wife. The builders gave her the house she wanted, but do we not all consider it one of the ugliest houses in Athens?"

"With such a wife, why should he worry about the appearance of his house?" asked ribald old Dorates. "With such a pretty woman in it, any house would look beautiful to me. She has no sense of taste, of course, but I could tolerate that."

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"I am not certain that she has no taste," Praxites put in, "the house has many projections and much ornamentation. Some of our best craftsmen worked on that house for several years. Surely they would not want to produce a house that is not beautiful. Nor would one of our architects plan a house that is not beautiful."

"Oh, yes, they will!" countered Benotole. "A craftsman or an architect yearns to produce beauty and is sometimes able to do so if given a free rein. But each must also earn his bread, he must support his family, so he follows the directions of those who employ him whether they be public office holders or individual citizens. In spite of his dislike for what is done, he must accept commissions and build edifices which are both ostentatious and gaudy."

"You have changed the subject," Mesothenes accused the group. "We were talking of building public buildings that are gaudy palaces. The city fathers are spending too much money building that place on the hill. The real trouble lies with the fellow in charge. He demands a big fee for drawing plans and little pictures of the thing. He says that this is necessary to make certain that the building will fit the site and that it will be exactly as the city fathers expect it will be. This is all a waste of money. Any good mason could build what we want. After all, it does not have to last forever. We are not obligated to invest in posterity. I say we have trouble enough paying for what we need today so let us build something that will suffice for the time being."

"The temporary is rarely beautiful and almost as rarely economical," asserted Leanytes. "Everything done with the money belonging to the people of Athens will be of lasting importance for good or bad. We can build cheap buildings without plans, but they will prove expensive because they will not be well-fitted for their purpose and their functional failings will make yet more building necessary. A plain building can be a beautiful building but such beauty does not come by happenstance. It comes through the wisdom of men who appreciate both buildings and beauty. Certainly the beautiful building deserves a beautiful site and is not to be relegated to some unlovely spot that no one desires. The moderation in all things, the harmony for which all our wise men strive in government, the beauty sought by our artists, the truth sought by our philosophers, the regard for principle for which all of us strive in our own lives should be evidenced in our public buildings. This beauty is not in the ornaments which soon decay or fall nor in the decorations which will fade, but in the very design of the structure which will be a testimony to the wisdom of the men of Athens as long as mortar holds stone to stone."

On the hill above the wine shop, the masons continued the construction of the rectangular building with the pillars.

Administrator, Check That Decision!

PAUL KENNEDY

DESPITE the efforts of training programs to turn out graduates prepared to teach the "whole child," administrators are continually confronted with teachers who are fired with enthusiasm for their particular jobs and all the activities associated with them. The general education courses don't dampen the zeal of these graduates for their particular fields of endeavor, and they enter the teaching profession intent upon making their marks. It is a fortunate school that has such people working with its students, and the administrator who is wise enough to see the possibilities of utilizing these ambitions may count himself among the lucky.

No one part of the educational program has a monopoly on these eager beginners; they can be found working in science labs, classrooms, athletics, or in any part of the system that has appealed to them as the place that offers the challenge to, and the reward for their respective abilities.

This zeal and zest has many symptoms; the band man may want to have more parades, the science teacher may want to take more field trips, the journalism teacher may want to get out more publications, the coach may want more games, and the speech teacher may want more assemblies. All of these are individually justifiable and reasonable in the opinions of the respective aspirants, but what does it mean to the administrator and what is that role that he is expected to play?

The responsibility for scheduling activities is on the shoulders of the administrator; he has to make the decision. The results of which may not be to the liking of the persons affected, and it is well to consider this by anticipating their various reactions to the possible alternatives.

School schedules may already be filled with activities to the extent that additional undertakings will create conflicts that will hinder more than help the educational program. Anticipating these problems, the administrator must employ tact, diplomacy, and skill in his relations with teachers if their enthusiasm is to be used to advantage instead of curbed into disappointment.

One approach to this situation is to have a general faculty meeting devoted to a discussion of the entire year's schedule of activities. Individual teachers or representatives of various departments could be given the opportunity to describe the purposes of their respective group activities, the value to be gained by the students, and the necessity of the activity to acquire the particular values. In the light of the objectives of

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the educational program, the activity should be given its rightful place in the curriculum. At such a meeting, teachers will be able to see the over-all picture and an enhanced appreciation of the contributions made by fellow faculty members will add to the rapport and *esprit de corps* that is to be desired.

Regardless of the success of such a procedure, there will be numerous times throughout the year when various individuals or groups within the school may wish to demonstrate evidence of their particular students' achievements, or community organizations may request the services or time of faculty members and students. These should be expected of an energetic faculty and the administrator needs to remember the kind of people with whom he has the pleasure of working. He may take it upon himself to come up with an immediate decision without discussing the matter with the people concerned, and this may prove most expeditious for the moment. Nevertheless, the teachers affected may feel that they should have had a part in the planning. They may have a point for consideration.

Psychologists tell us that the drives for recognition and achievement are present in everyone; teachers are no exception. Their judgments can usually be relied upon because most of them are genuinely interested in education. Given all the information and made aware of the consequences of alternatives, they can prove quite capable in decision-making.

So before accepting that request to have the band parade in a neighboring town, or entering the English classes in an organization sponsored theme writing contest, or promising a musical number for the local social, or turning thumbs down on the offer of letting the students visit a local industry, why don't you visit with the teacher about it? He may have some good ideas on the matter and the forthcoming decision may be reached with a better feeling prevailing if he has opportunity to express his opinion. It is quite possible that the agreed-upon decision may be the one you would have preferred, but might not have made, had you done it alone.

Don't kill that enthusiasm that these people are bringing into the profession; it is to be desired and encouraged. It can be directed toward quality just as well as for quantity. It is the successful administrator who can see the possibilities of working with these inspired teachers who are sold on their subject.

Problems of Evaluation in Educational Change

LAWRENCE W. DOWNEY

A NEW era in educational innovation is rapidly developing. But as the tempo of the movement accelerates, it becomes increasingly apparent that continued progress may be hampered by one rather formidable obstacle; namely, the expressed inability of most practitioners to evaluate the exact effects of their innovations. Problems of evaluation, however, are not limited to practitioners. The nature of the educational enterprise is such that appraisal of progress is a peculiarly difficult task.

Most organizations find it possible to engage in at least three general types of evaluation: the *first* involves a precise, quantitative analysis of output in relation to input; it leads to an *index of economy*—a measure of the extent to which the expenditure of resources results in profitable outcomes. The *second* type involves a qualitative analysis of the finished product in relation either to some comparable product or to the original raw material; it leads to an *index of quality*—a measure of the comparative desirability of the product. The *third* involves an appraisal of the production process in terms of some intrinsic criterion; it leads to an *index of efficiency*—a measure of the appropriateness of procedures.

Education, in its very essence, defies most of these appraisal techniques. An index of economy, for example, seems out of the question. The outcomes of schooling have never been quantified—and are unlikely to be. Thus unit comparisons of input in relation to output are beyond the realm of possibility. Responsible judgment seems to be the only basis for analyzing returns on educational investments.

Similarly, precise indices of the quality of the educational product appear to be improbable, if not impossible. The "educated man" has not yet been described in terms which lend themselves to precise measurement; and even if precise qualitative measures were possible, there appear to be no established norms against which to make comparisons. As in the case of economic appraisals, one must rely upon value or judgment in determining the quality of the school's product.

Finally, it may be noted that educators have not yet had much success in appraising the efficiency of the educative process. Even now, conceptions of the teaching-learning process continue to be quite vague; evaluating the efficiency of the process, therefore, poses serious diffi-

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culties. In spite of these limitations, however, it is proposed that, in the evaluation of educational innovation, attention to *process* seems to be the most fruitful; indeed, some progress is already being made in this area.

My proposal that appraisal in education is most likely to be successful at the process level is based initially upon the foregoing observations of the difficulty of other types of evaluation. But there is another good reason for it. My basic assumption is that the purposes of education must center primarily about the individual. True, both cultural factors and societal aims must also be borne in mind. But even with due regard for these considerations, the purpose of education may best be conceived as the facilitation of maximum self-realization on the part of the individual student. The process of self-realization, however, is never consummated; there is no specific moment at which an individual realizes his full potential. Thus it seems clear that there can be no absolute, measurable product of education. Education fosters the development of individuals, but it does not produce any kind of model individual. Formal education, therefore, is best viewed as a process which contributes to a process—the process of education contributing to the process of self-realization.

Accordingly, one may be more convinced that, in the evaluation of educational change, appraisal of the process itself—as a contribution to an ongoing process of self-realization—is, perhaps, the most pertinent and the most promising.

WHAT EDUCATION IS

Education is somewhat of an art, something of a science, and something of a technology. Thus in problems of appraisal, the educator may fruitfully adopt the perspective and the methods of the artist, the scientist, and the technologist. The artist is first and foremost a good observer. He deliberately cultivates his sensitivity—his “feel” for his subject—so that his observations may lead to new insights and, ultimately, to improvement in his artistry. The scientist also begins with observation. But he translates his observations into theories and hypotheses. These he subjects to experimental tests so that his observations ultimately lead to new knowledge. The methods of the technologist are different again. The technologist adapts scientific knowledge to specific situations; he “tries-out” new principles; and he determines the relevance of the newer knowledge and principles for his professional practice.

It follows that in the evaluation of educational innovation, the methods of the artist, the scientist, and the technologist are all appropriate. Increased sensitivity in *observation* may lead to improved insights about the educative process; precise experimentation and *measurement* may add to existing knowledge about the relevant aspects of teaching and learning; and simply *testing* the appropriateness of new methods may lead to improved technologies in the practice of education. Each of these methods has relevance in the field of education; insightful observation, precise measurement, and tests of applicability all qualify as legitimate evaluation techniques.

Now let us examine the process of education, in an effort to determine exactly where and in what respects each method of evaluation applies.

THE PROCESS OF EDUCATION

There appear to be three major dimensions to the educative process: (1) the substantive dimension, including the content and method of inquiry of the various disciplines; (2) the procedural dimension, including the learner's motives, the group climate, and the teacher's direction; and (3) the environmental dimension, including the organization of personnel, the physical conditions, and the technological devices. We have elaborated this conception of education elsewhere; it will not be repeated here.¹ The image, however, is central to the discussion to follow, so we include the conceptual model as Figure 1.

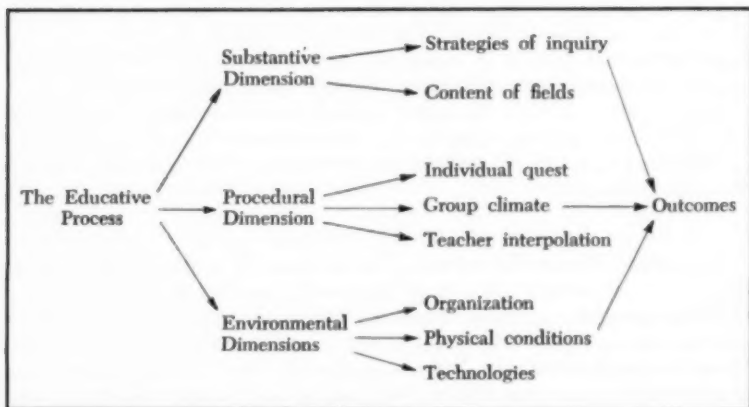


Figure 1. The Process of Education

It is important to note here that the process of education is dynamic. Learning takes place in a multitude of settings; but, in each learning activity the three dimensions of the process interact dynamically with each other. Thus, for a comprehensive view of any learning experience, it is necessary to identify the contributions of each aspect of the process itself.

If one accepts this position, that education is a dynamic process involving interactions among these three dimensions and their components, one can readily envision the total consequences of altering any single dimension or component: The initial interference will induce change in all other dimensions and *immediate consequences* will be effected. These immediate consequences will, in turn, react upon all dimensions pro-

¹ See Lawrence W. Downey, "Secondary Education: A Model for Improvement," *The School Review*, Autumn 1960.

ducing a new set of *intermediate results*. Finally, after equilibrium is restored, *final outcomes* will be realized. The complexity of the dynamic is illustrated in Figure 2. This illustration diagrams the action inherent in the three assumptions we relate to change in the educative process: (1) that change to any single aspect has an immediate consequence for all other aspects; (2) that these consequences cause new reactions and produce intermediate results; and (3) that these, in turn, stimulate further reactions which ultimately contribute to final outcomes. In our illustration, the change points corresponding to these three actions are A, B, C, respectively.

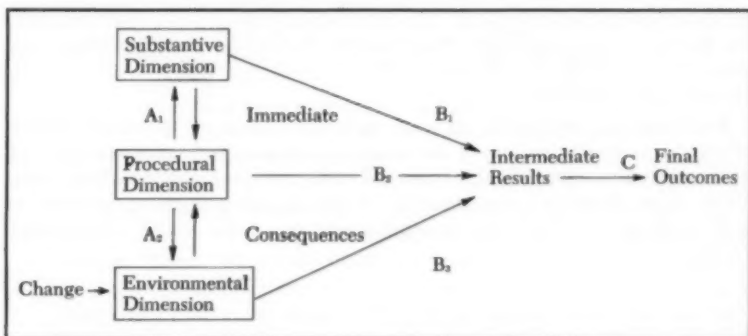


Figure 2. Evaluation Points in Educational Innovation

For a specific example, consider the introduction of an overhead projection into a classroom. This action represents a change to the environmental dimension, as depicted in Figure 2. One of the immediate consequences to the procedural dimension, for example, will be a change in the teacher's role. This, in turn, may influence the method of inquiry, one aspect of the substantive dimension, and produce as an intermediate result, change in student motivation. This intermediate result will react upon the total process and influence the final outcomes. Each of these developments can be appraised; each is an important aspect of the change.

It is clear then, that useful evaluation includes *much more* than a comparison of antecedent and resultant conditions. The educative process is extremely involved; appraising the total consequences of a single change to the process is well nigh impossible. We would suggest, however, that if one begins with a comprehensive image of the total process, such as Figure 1, and if one anticipates where results are likely to be observable, as suggested in Figure 2, the problems of evaluation should not be completely insurmountable.

Referring again to Figure 2, it is indicated that observations at points A_1 and A_2 may lead to useful insights into change's immediate influence upon various aspects of the educative process. Skillful observations and

measurements at points B_1 , B_2 , and B_3 will reveal the reactions of intermediate achievements upon the total educative process. Final outcomes may be assessed at point C. Each of these observations or measurements constitutes an important aspect of evaluation.

CONCLUSION

We would suggest, in conclusion, that the usual practice of simply comparing student achievement after an innovation with student achievement before an innovation is inadequate as an evaluation plan. Even if improvement is measurable, as indicated by increased achievement, the innovator cannot claim with certainty that the improvement is a direct result of the innovation itself. The intervening process is a dynamic one; the final outcome could be a direct result of some intermediate effect—an intermediate effect which the insightful innovator might well wish to identify and comprehend.

Furthermore, we would contend that observation of the intermediary effects is as important as, if not more important than, measurement of final outcomes. Contributions toward refining the art of teaching may result from insightful observations of the teaching-learning process as well as from so-called experimental evidence of the worth of an innovation.

The Administrator

SEYMOUR SOLOP

AN ADMINISTRATOR, according to Webster, is "one who administers," but this, in turn, leads us nowhere. Instead, we are left with many unanswered questions resulting from the implications of this three-word definition. Some of these questions are:

1. What does Webster mean by administer?
2. What do I, as an individual, mean when I use "administer"?
3. How do these two questions compare?
4. What does an administrator administer?
5. What factors are involved when an administrator administers?
6. What kinds of administrators are there?
7. What is an ideal administrator—if there is such a person?

Let us return to Webster and check his definition of "administer." This is "to manage or direct the execution, application, or conduct of; to manage affairs." Therefore, using the literal application of Webster's work—an administrator is one who manages or directs, the execution, application, or conduct of affairs. This, then, satisfies Webster, and all those individuals who look upon him as the final authority in the field of semantics. But, can this satisfy those of us who are potential administrators in the field of education? Can we be "lumped" together with administrators of every field and be told that the only difference between us and the others is the objective preceding our title?

Before we can go any further we must select our basic frame of reference and use it to develop our ideas. The primary function of education, as I see it, is twofold: (1) to teach and train the individual to live and participate within a democratic society; (2) to learn what is ideal and to work toward the ideal, thus correcting society's present ills. Before going further, I feel I must define "democratic society," thus enabling us to understand each other. A *democratic society* is one wherein each individual has definite rights and privileges and may exercise them to the fullest—as long as he does not encroach upon the rights and privileges of any other individual within this society. Along with these rights and privileges, each individual has comparable responsibilities basic of which is the responsibility to accept each responsibility inherent within each right and privilege. Since education prepares the individual for a democratic society, the education, and especially those who work within its framework, must be democratic in nature and in practice.

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Ordinarily, we would be able to compare the framework of education with the framework of business. Both have labor, management, a reason for being, and a product; but there the similarity ends. Both endeavor to produce a better product: *business*, in order to make a bigger profit, and *education*, in order to make a better citizen. An important factor within both fields is the people occupying the positions involved with management, or as we call them—the administrators. They are the people who are the connecting link between labor and the policy makers. It is these people who “keep the wheels and gears oiled so that the millstones can produce a finer flour.”

Education deals with intangibles and produces a product that will not produce a profit until many years later. Because of this, we must use an adjectival reference to administrators and administration. The group must be separated into business administrators and educational administrators, but there the breakdown ends. Education cannot, and must not, use sub-adjectival references to administrators. Subject matter and type of education (elementary, secondary, vocational) are not the end results themselves; they are the means to an end and thus, cannot, and should not, be used as a limiting and separating force. Education is a fluid field and a continuous force upon the pupil. Those involved as administrators should be able to have fluidity and participate actively and fully regardless of the level requesting aid.

Regardless of the basic differences between education and business, we must be able to work together. Not in the sense of both working together as one unit, but in the sense of learning one from the other. We must continually evaluate each other's methods and sift them to find those that would be advantageous for the other to use. Just as business has borrowed our teaching methods to upgrade their labor force and, in turn, provide a better product, so must we borrow from business those methods which are applicable to our own situation to help us produce a better end product—a more complete individual better prepared to participate actively and fully within our democratic society. The individuals who can help us do this best are the administrators.

Let us now look at this position, entitled the administrator, not from the viewpoint as an individual, but as one of a group doing the same basic job. Although the administrator, in education, operates at different levels, he is always found participating in a superordinate-subordinate position. To help us understand all administrators, I will use the chief school administrator (the school superintendent) as my basic model. Everything that applies to him will apply to every educational administrator. Even though he is the top school administrator, he still functions within a superordinate-subordinate position, with the board of education being in the superordinate position. Now, as chief school administrator, he must decide on the procedures to be followed and the things to be done, within the system, to provide a better end product. Therefore, we can say that this individual must make decisions—decisions which will affect every individual, both workers and pupils, under his control. As

these decisions are passed down through the superordinate-subordinate relationship each administrator concerned must make decisions, based upon the decision received, as they relate to his particular situation. Thus, we can define an administrator as one who makes decisions in order to lead others to produce a better end product. Comparing this definition to Webster's definition, we find that Webster does not tell us everything regarding what an administrator does, while our definition gives us an inkling into what is done. As yet, I feel our definition is still incomplete and I shall endeavor to fill in, and round out, our definition as I see it.

Basically, decisions are of two types: (1) the policy decision and (2) the implementation decision. Each administrator is involved with both types, but is concerned chiefly with the implementation decision. Policy decisions are made by subordinates only as to how an implementation decision from a superordinate can be applied to the local situation. The only people concerned solely with the policy decision is the board of education; but, even so, in order for them to make their policy decisions, they must participate in the same procedures and processes as all other administrators.

Decisions are not things unto themselves; they are not something grabbed from space and passed down to others as the absolute word. I feel they are ends which, in turn, become means to the over-all end product. Just as what we are and how we think and act is a result of everything that has happened to us, so are decisions a result of an administrator's past life and experiences.

Up until recently, administration was a field of endeavor whose main technique was the "shot-gun" method. If possible, decisions were made based upon principles each individual had evolved from situations he had read about or with which he had had contact. There was no consistency regarding principles and theory. Each individual considered his principles and theory as the only correct ones to use, or if the administrator was a follower, then he "latched" on to those expressed by an "expert" in the field. All of a sudden, many "experts" realized we had a field fraught with backbiting, slander, and inconsistencies, and one that had to be untangled and rebuilt on a much firmer base than before. A theory of administration had to be evolved, but a theory which could provide hypotheses and principles applicable to all situations. Only through the rise of an acceptable theory of administration could administration become a science and stand along side other sciences. Up to now, administration has been considered basically an art—"You either have the talent or you don't." But, is this enough? Do we want only artists in the field of administration or do we want scientists? Before we go any further let us look at administration in terms of artists and scientists and art and science. In order to do this, I feel we have to examine administration a little deeper and see what is really involved in being an administrator.

An administrator, as mentioned before, is one who makes decisions in order to lead others to produce a better end product. The implications inherent within this statement are overwhelming. Since we live within

a democratic society, then it is understood that we should work within a democratic society, and, in turn, working within a democratic society infers that we work with others democratically—not telling them what to do unquestioningly but to lead them to do what the administrator decides is the best to do under the circumstances. The administrative relationship being one of superordinate-subordinate, then the handling of authority is implicit. But, with democracy dominating the entire relationship, the administrator should not rely upon his authority to enforce his decisions. The enforcement of his decisions should be based not upon a superior social status, nor upon a manifestation of superior general wisdom, nor upon a supposedly higher moral character. Instead, it should be based upon superior knowledge and a higher technical competence in his particular field. As an administrator, it is expected that he will have the technical training and the competence for allocating and integrating the roles and facilities required for attaining the institutional goals of all members involved within the administrative process. These institutional goals would, in turn, provide for a better end product—a more complete individual and a person better prepared to live within a democratic society.

An administrator, by definition, is one who works with others, and, as we mentioned before, is concerned with a superordinate-subordinate relationship. Functionally, this relationship is the locus for allocating and integrating all roles and facilities needed to achieve the basic goals. These functions are the responsibility of the superordinate member of the relationship, but each function becomes effective only in so far as it is communicated to, and accepted by, the subordinate member. Thus, the superordinate member must be cognizant of the human factors involved in dealing with the subordinate member, and, in turn, makes the nature of the human relationship the crucial factor in the administrative process. Carrying this a little further, we may think of the basic administrative relationship as an interaction between two units. One unit becomes the initiator of the decision and the other the recipient. The functioning of the administrative process depends upon the nature of the interaction between the two individuals concerned—thus reiterating the importance of human relations. If expectations are the same, then communication will be facilitated and the administrative process can go forward. If there are discrepancies within the expectations, then communication is impeded and the administrative process is blocked, which, in turn, will not achieve the basic goal.

Every field is composed of three basic types of individuals, each working on a higher level of competence than the one preceding. The lowest level is composed of those individuals who rely on routine. Everything is broken down to a definite routine, with each problem being assigned a definite routine structure and then worked out as all others of the same pattern. He is a doer and a follower, but definitely not an initiator. The second level of competence provides an individual who has a talent for getting others to work together harmoniously in order to

fulfill that which is expected. This person cannot tell you how he does it. Everything is intuitive—he “knows” what to do and say and when to do it and say it, but he cannot list any definite principles or reasons that he follows. Our highest level of competence would be composed of individuals who may, or may not, have characteristics of the lower levels of competence, but would have something which the others lack. First, he would be an organizer, and could visualize how this organization would look in operation. Second, he would be able to lead people toward the proper institutional goals and never have to fall back upon the authority inherent within his position. But most importantly, this individual, operating on the highest level of competence, would be proceeding according to an established theory of educational administration—a theory based upon scientific methods and composed of workable and proven hypotheses; a theory which is not static but is interrelated with practices with each being an aspect of the processes of inquiry, and, intelligently pursued, each constantly re-defining the other.

These three levels of competence can be named and, through their naming, form an hierarchy which is important to the field of administration. Each serves a purpose in helping to fulfill the institutional goals, but only one fulfills both the goals of administration and the goals of the institution. The first level of competence could be called the *technician*—his purpose being to complete the high-level routine functions of administration. The second level of competence could be called the *artist*, with art being defined as that field composed primarily of talent, or ability, that is inherent within an individual. This talent would be an intangible ability that could not be taught to an individual. If an individual has this intangible characteristic, he can be taught to use it properly and to its fulfillment, thus making him an artist. If the individual is lacking this intangible ability, then, no matter how much he is instructed, it will be to no avail and he will never achieve this level of competency. The top level of competency would be called the *scientist*, with science being defined as that field composed of a theory and workable hypotheses proven by a scientific method. An individual having a proven theory to guide his actions and decisions, and, in turn, using his correct actions and decisions constantly to re-evaluate his theory and hypotheses would be a scientist. Through the continual re-evaluating of his theory, his range of understanding would be deepened and widened, thus enabling him to take into account many remote consequences which were originally hidden from view and hence were ignored in his actions. Greater continuity would be introduced and the individual would not have to isolate situations and deal with them in separation as he was compelled to do when ignorant of connecting principles. At the same time, his practical dealings would become more flexible. By seeing more relations, he sees more possibilities and more opportunities, and, in turn, he is emancipated from the need of following traditions and special precedents. With his ability to judge being enriched, he would have a wider range of alternatives from which to select in dealing with individual situations. By

having a wider range of alternatives from which to choose he would be able to make better decisions, thus creating better means to produce the ends inherent in the institutional goals.

This is the type of administrator needed in our field. This is the scientist of administration. This is the individual who, through his work, will make educational administration a true science—where, if decisions made in terms of a theory work, we shall have increased confidence in the theory. If we find the decisions do not work, then the theory must stand revision. It is by this process of theory guiding practice and practice, in turn, guiding theory that we shall be able to build up a reliable body of practice, theory, and research of general applicability in administration.

Therefore, we can disregard Webster's definition and redefine an administrator as one who makes decisions scientifically in order to lead others to meet the institutional goals and produce a better end product.

The Problem of Delegating Responsibility in a Large High School

LEO WEITZ

FOR a variety of reasons, the principal of a large high school must delegate many of his responsibilities in part or in whole to members of his staff. Unless he does so effectively and intelligently, he finds little time to devote to his functions as an educational leader. Finney expressed it rather succinctly some three decades ago when he analyzed the problem of executive responsibility in the following words:

... we may begin by pointing out that the school administrator's work may be roughly analyzed into two major parts: executive details, and the formulation of policy. The first is mere school shopkeeping; the second is educational statesmanship. . . . In his first capacity as school shopkeeper, the educational administrator is operating the school as it is now; in his second capacity as educational statesman, he is making the school over into what it ought to become.¹

I am certain that at some time or other every principal who has practiced a little self-evaluation has asked himself questions such as the following: Am I performing tasks which I should delegate to others? Do I concentrate my energies sufficiently on major responsibilities? How do my colleagues in other schools organize and assign duties?

Texts in administration and education often enunciate the theoretical principles which should govern administrators in organizing their responsibilities. But what are the actual practices among high-school principals? To what extent do principals assume responsibilities themselves and to what extent do they delegate them to others? Can any general patterns of behavior be found among administrators? If there are variations, why do some delegate more than others?

The purpose of this article is to present some of the findings of a doctoral study² completed recently by the writer in which he attempted to assemble data on the problem of delegating responsibility. The study encompassed a group of very large metropolitan high schools—54 schools in New York City and some in other metropolitan communities. The major purposes of the research were:

¹ Ross L. Finney. *A Sociological Philosophy of Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1928. Pp. 539-540.

² Leo Weitz, "The High-School Principal in New York City: A Study of Executive Responsibility in Theory and Practice," School of Education, New York University, 1960, 372 pp.

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1. To examine the administration of New York City academic high schools and to determine how the responsibilities of the high-school principal actually functioned within the institutional framework of existing authority in the administration and practice of a large-school system;
2. To discover what modifications would be desirable to strengthen the principal's effectiveness as an executive and educational leader.

Numerous aspects of the high-school principal's work were covered in this investigation. Among them were a job-analysis of the principal's responsibilities, the manner in which he uses his time, his relationships with the central school administration, and the major obstacles to his effectiveness. However, the present analysis is limited to those findings which bear directly on the problem of delegating responsibility.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

In order to secure data on the delegation of specific responsibilities, it was necessary, as a first step, to construct a job-analysis or a check list of the responsibilities of a high-school principal in New York City. The necessary data for this instrument were obtained from a variety of sources: research studies in secondary-school administration; the by-laws of the Board of Education, the circulars and directives of various officials at the central office; and the personal log and files of the investigator who is a high-school principal. The resulting check list contained 178 responsibilities organized into six major areas of the principal's functions.

The check list was then incorporated into a two-part questionnaire designed to elicit the principal's reactions to the responsibilities mentioned and to secure information on how his duties were assumed, delegated, or shared with others. These materials were then submitted for evaluation to a group of fourteen school administrators and to the associate superintendent of high schools and his staff.

The final form of this very lengthy and detailed questionnaire was submitted to all principals of academic high schools in New York City. Of the 56, there were 54 responses. It might be well, at this point, to indicate the size of these high schools. In February 1959—the time of this study—the 54 schools participating in this research project had a total pupil population of 177,827.³ Table I indicates how they varied in size.

In the instructions accompanying the questionnaire, principals were requested to describe the situation "as it applies to you and your school at the present time." The 178 responsibilities listed were to be classified by them into one of the following three categories:

Column A—Those duties which are the responsibility of the principal and which are *performed largely or entirely by him*; e.g., the rating of the custodian;

Column B—Those duties which are the responsibility of the principal, but which are *largely delegated or executed by others*;

³ High School Division, Board of Education, City of New York, "High-School Organization Report," Spring Term, 1959.

Column C—Those duties which are the responsibility of the principal, but which are *shared to a considerable degree* by both the principal and his assistants; *e.g.*, visits teachers, confers with them and writes reports. (Do not include in this category those in which you may be consulted but in the performance of which you play only a minor part.)

TABLE I. Distribution of Pupil Registers in 54 Reporting High Schools in New York City
(As of February 2, 1959)⁴

<i>Pupil Register</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
0- 999	3
1,000-1,999	4
2,000-2,999	14
3,000-3,999	16
4,000-4,999	15
5,000 & over	2
	54
MEDIAN: 3,375	

The raw data derived from the responses were tabulated and analyzed to discover what general and individual patterns of executive behavior could be ascribed to high-school principals.

The investigator was aware that a questionnaire could not tell the whole story. He therefore interviewed numerous principals and also spent a considerable period of time visiting schools. In New York City, six high schools were visited. These schools were selected so as to be representative of favored, average, and difficult school populations. Visits were also paid to large out-of-town schools in Philadelphia, Newark, and Westchester. The purpose of these visits was to compare principals' responses with their performance and to secure additional information on the problems under consideration.

GENERAL PATTERNS OF EXECUTIVE BEHAVIOR IN DELEGATING RESPONSIBILITY

Table II presents a summary of the data for the six major areas of the principal's responsibilities. As indicated in the table, New York City academic high-school principals reported that they personally assumed the responsibility for performing 42 per cent of all the tasks enumerated in the job analysis. They delegated largely or entirely to others 19 per cent of their responsibilities, and they shared to a considerable degree with other staff members 36 per cent of their duties.

As would be expected, the area in which principals personally assumed the largest share of responsibilities (88 per cent) was that concerned with relationships to the central office. Next in order came: working with professional colleagues, 70 per cent; working with the staff, 47 per

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

cent; working with pupils, 43 per cent; working with the community, 37 per cent; and organizing, managing, and coordinating the various components of the school, 31 per cent.

The area of responsibility in which principals delegated the largest proportion of their total responsibilities was that concerned with organization and management. Yet, even in this instance, as Table II (Group B) indicates, the proportion was approximately one third or 33.2 per cent. Next in rank in the category of complete delegation were: working with the community, 17.4 per cent; working with pupils, 16.3 per cent; working with the staff, 5.9 per cent; working with professional colleagues, 2.8 per cent; and working with the central office, 1.0 per cent.

TABLE II. The Percentage of Total Responsibilities Personally Assumed, Delegated or Shared by New York City High-School Principals (In 54 Schools)

Area of Responsibility		Expressed in Per Cent			
		*Not Performed	A	B	C
I	Organizing, Managing and Coordinating4	31.2	33.2	35.2
II	Working with the Staff6	47.3	5.9	46.2
III	Working with Pupils	1.3	43.0	16.3	39.4
IV	Working with Community	12.2	37.6	17.4	32.9
V	Working with Central Office	2.3	88.2	1.0	8.5
VI	Working with Professional Colleagues	18.2	69.7	2.8	9.3
		2.7	42.2	19.2	35.9

*Legend: Not Performed = Responsibility not performed in present school
 A = Performed largely or entirely by the principal
 B = Largely delegated to others
 C = Shared considerably

In the third category, Group C, responsibilities "shared considerably with others," the area in which this practice most frequently occurred was that concerned with the staff; namely, 46.2 per cent. Since the high-school principal in New York City has a staff of licensed department heads, it is understandable why almost half of the responsibilities in the area of working with the staff were shared by the principal with his assistants. In dealing with pupils, the principal shared with his guidance and teaching personnel 39.4 per cent of his duties. In the area of organization and management, he shared 35.2 per cent of his duties and in community work, 33.9 per cent of his responsibilities.

Even if one keeps in mind the limitations of this study, it is the investigator's conclusion from the data presented that *principals in New York City's high schools do not or cannot delegate a sufficient proportion of their job as educational leaders*. This conclusion is supported by the writer's observations stemming from his visits to schools and from comments made by so many principals in numerous reports.

One recurrent theme that seemed to characterize the comments made by principals, as they answered the various items in the questionnaire, was their inability to find sufficient time for those aspects of their job which they considered most important. Directly or indirectly they attributed their shortcomings to the involved administrative routine necessary to secure action by certain agencies of the central office and to the need for additional assistants.

Can any basic pattern be discerned in the study of principals' practices with regard to the delegation of specific responsibilities? An analysis of the data revealed wide variations among heads of schools in the matter of assuming, delegating, and sharing responsibilities. *Of the 178 items there were only two responsibilities concerning which there was perfect agreement among principals as to how they were performed.* Ninety per cent of the principals were in agreement concerning the delegation of 15 responsibilities; seventy-five per cent of the principals concurred in the matter of delegating 40 responsibilities. Sixty per cent agreed how they would delegate 102 responsibilities.

Even if one makes allowances for differences in interpretation of the material in the questionnaire, there were numerous instances where only one interpretation was possible and yet principals' practices differed. For example, the principal has the legal responsibility for rating the custodian-engineer on the quality of her performance. Of the 54 principals, 53 did the rating themselves, but one reported that he delegated it to someone else, his administrative assistant. The principal has the legal responsibility to suspend students where the health and safety of the school are endangered. Here again, 50 principals reported that they alone assumed the responsibility; one delegated it completely to his assistant; two shared it, and one claimed she had never suspended any student at all.

Since administration is influenced by many factors, personal and institutional, it would be unrealistic to expect complete uniformity or almost complete uniformity in the matter of delegating tasks. Nevertheless, a course of action pursued by a majority of experienced principals carries with it a fairly high degree of validity for making reasonable generalizations. The investigator therefore selected a 60 per cent concurrence among principals as a minimum test for including a specific practice among those which were most characteristic of the group. He found that 102 of the 178 responsibilities fell into this category. Fifty-two responsibilities were identified which a majority of the principals performed themselves. Twenty tasks were identified that were largely delegated to others. Thirty responsibilities were shared considerably with staff members.

The limitations of space in this article do not permit the detailed listing of the 102 duties. However, the following are examples of the *ten most frequently reported duties in each category*:

Responsibilities Performed Personally by New York City Principals
(52 duties)

1. Confers with assistant superintendent and others on school matters

2. Evaluates supervisory work of department chairmen
3. Rates custodian on the quality of his performance
4. Signs all diplomas and award certificates
5. Serves as a "last resort" in dealing with extreme behavior problems
6. Secures the approval of the high-school division on all matters where such action is necessary
7. Intercedes with the central office for additional supplies when needed
8. Consults with department chairmen concerning the strengths and weaknesses of teachers
9. Participates regularly in conferences of the High-School Principals Association
10. Approves all requests for use of building by outside organizations

Responsibilities Largely Delegated by High-School Principals (20 duties)

1. Schedules proctoring and housing of examinations
2. Prepares reports on Regents, state, and uniform examinations
3. Plans and organizes procedures for preparation, storage, supervision, and correction of examinations
4. Scheduling of classes, reorganization, etc.
5. Prepares school calendars
6. Pupil records
7. Report cards
8. Student traffic
9. College applications and transcripts
10. Admission and discharge of pupils

Responsibilities Most Commonly Shared by High-School Principals with Supervisory and Administrative Staffs (30 duties)

1. Provides for orientation of new teachers
2. Plans remedial measures for dealing with serious behavior problems
3. Plans faculty, cabinet, and guidance council meetings
4. Plans special programs for bright, slow, and artistically gifted
5. Seeks out likely candidates for teaching positions
6. Plans general policy with respect to sessions, periods, specific subjects, and classes to be offered
7. Purchases and assembles curriculum materials for staff
8. Encourages staff to evaluate its work and to experiment with materials and techniques
9. Studies curriculum bulletins and helps staff to interpret them
10. Visits teachers, confers with them, writes reports

INDIVIDUAL PATTERNS OF EXECUTIVE BEHAVIOR IN DELEGATING
RESPONSIBILITY

An analysis of the combined data for the 54 schools led to a number of conclusions concerning general patterns of executive behavior in delegating responsibility. As a next step, an examination was made of the reports of sixteen individual principals to see how their performance compared with the average for the entire group. The same statistical procedures were employed as those used in analyzing the combined data. For each principal percentages were computed for duties personally assumed, and for those delegated or shared.

The 16 principals selected for this analysis comprised three groups: six represented the New York City schools visited by this investigator; two were out-of-town schools visited by him; and eight others were local schools chosen at random from the remaining batch of questionnaires. Table III summarizes the results of this investigation and compares them with the average for all schools.

An examination of Table III will indicate that wide variation occurs in each of the categories studied. In Group A, responsibilities performed personally by principals, the percentages ranged from 26.4 to 72.7. Seven schools fell below the average for all schools; namely, 42.2 per cent; nine were above it. The size of the individual school bore little or no relationship to the proportion of duties assumed personally by the principal. For example, in school D 7 with 4,030 pupils, the principal reported that he personally performed over 67.4 per cent of all tasks. In school E 4 with 1,068 pupils, he personally assumed 72.7 per cent of the responsibilities.

The same situation exists when the analysis is applied to Group B; namely, duties which were delegated to others. The percentages varied from 7.3 to 34.8; the city-wide average was 19.2 per cent. Of the five largest schools in the group, the percentage of duties delegated to others ranged from 12.9 to 32.6. Likewise for group C, duties shared by the

TABLE III. A Comparison of Sixteen High Schools: Proportion of Responsibilities Personally Assumed by the Principal or Delegated and Shared with Staffs

School	Pupil Registers Feb. 1959	Percentages			
		*Not Performed	A	B	C
54 schools		2.7	42.2	19.2	35.9
<i>New York City Schools Visited</i>					
B 4	2,558	1.1	50.0	10.1	38.7
D 5	4,358	1.1	42.7	30.9	25.3
A 8	2,514	4.5	50.6	19.6	25.3
B 6	3,000	3.8	33.7	24.1	38.2
B 3	3,980	3.8	51.1	21.8	23.0
E 4	1,822	8.4	32.6	17.0	42.1
<i>Out-of-Town Schools Visited</i>					
F 1	1,800	7.9	55.0	23.6	13.5
F 3	3,000	8.4	26.4	34.8	30.3
<i>Other New York City Schools</i>					
D 7	4,030	0	67.4	12.9	19.6
B 1	3,981	5.0	30.3	24.1	40.4
D 12	2,866	.6	42.1	28.6	28.6
C 7	6,239	.6	30.3	12.9	56.2
E 2	2,294	8.4	32.0	26.0	33.7
E 1	2,286	1.1	46.0	7.3	45.5
E 4	1,068	4.0	72.7	8.0	15.7
C 4	5,385	8.0	43.8	32.6	15.7

*Legend: A = Responsibilities performed largely by the principal
 B = Responsibilities delegated largely or entirely to others
 C = Responsibilities shared considerably

principal with his assistants, the percentages deviated from the average varying from 13.5 to 56.2 per cent. Among the observations to be made from a study of the data are the following:

1. Although a majority of principals reported that they themselves performed 54 of the 178 responsibilities, there were many individual principals who did much more. One principal claimed that he performed 129 of the responsibilities himself. Others reported numbers ranging from 54 to 129. The problem of performing a responsibility rather than delegating it is a highly individual matter, and it apparently bears no direct relationship to what, on the surface, seems clearly a duty to be carried out by the principal alone.

2. With the exception of two responsibilities out of a total of 178, there was not a single instance in which all principals were agreed that a particular responsibility ought to be performed by the principal alone. Even in cases where the great majority of principals reported that they assumed responsibility for the performance of a particular duty, there were others who delegated it or shared it with their assistants.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE INDIVIDUAL PRINCIPAL'S DELEGATION OF RESPONSIBILITIES

The problem of delegating responsibility is one of the most intriguing questions in the field of administration. As this investigator studied the manner in which they were organized, and examined the data supplied by the questionnaire, he found himself asking these questions: What factors determine the manner in which a principal organizes his work? Why do some executives delegate more than others?

What follows in this section represents an attempt to analyze some of the basic factors which influence a principal in delegating responsibility. The conclusions are purely tentative and are based upon the investigator's personal observations stemming from his visits to schools and from his study of materials and data available to him in his research.

Numerous factors, tangible and intangible, human and institutional, enter into an executive's way of organizing his work. One high-school principal in New York City summed it up in a letter accompanying his questionnaire:

The pattern reported by a principal will inevitably reflect his own temperament, philosophy, and interests. It will also be affected by the character of his school and his staff. A particular problem may be more acute in one school than another and may therefore require the personal attention of the principal in one school more than another. The people to whom he delegates authority may be more effective in one area than in another; and this will affect the amount of personal attention he must give to different areas of school administration.

Two sets of factors help to shape the manner in which a principal organizes his work. These may be summarized as follows:

The School Organization

1. Staff organization available in a particular school and school system
2. Character of the school population

3. Competency of the staff
4. Degree of control exercised by the central office

The Principal

1. His perception of his role as an executive
2. His personality and temperament
3. His philosophy of education

Each of these factors will be discussed briefly. Wherever possible illustrations will be selected from observations and data assembled by the investigator in his research.

The School Organization

Staff organization available. The type of staff organization available to the principal will determine, to a considerable extent, the degree to which he can delegate some of his responsibilities to assistants. In New York City high schools, the principal is provided with a system of carefully selected department heads and administrative assistants. The number available to the principal depends upon the size of the school. A school with 100 or more teachers is entitled to two administrative assistants. The principal is also allotted time for supervisory allowances depending upon the size of the school. He may organize any number of departments within his discretion provided he does not exceed his allowances and provided he does so within regulations. However, the number of licensed department chairmen assigned him may differ from the number of departments which he organizes in his school. Many schools operate with a number of acting chairmen where regular appointments are not available.

The existence of a strong departmental organization in New York City high schools explains why principals reported that approximately 46 per cent of their responsibilities in the area of working with the staff was shared with others, 6 per cent delegated entirely to others, and 47 per cent personally performed by the principal. An interesting contrast with the situation in New York City high schools is exemplified by the principal of one out-of-town high school visited by this investigator where there are only nominal department heads with no actual powers or authority. The principal of this school reported that he personally performed 89 per cent of the duties in the areas of staff selection, supervision, and improvement.

Similarly, the availability and number of vice-principals or administrative assistants to a principal will determine the degree to which responsibility can be delegated. In Philadelphia, the principal of the high school visited was provided with two vice-principals who occupied a position somewhat above department chairmen, and who were assigned administrative and supervisory responsibilities. It was, therefore, not surprising to find that the principal of this particular school reported that he delegated about 35 per cent of his duties, shared 30 per cent with others, and personally performed only 26 per cent of the responsibilities listed in the questionnaire.

One principal in New York City justified the fact that he personally performed 73 per cent of the responsibilities by appending the following statement: "My situation, you must realize, is completely atypical for this city, inasmuch as I do not have either an administrative assistant or any licensed chairmen. This, despite the fact that I have 59 teachers and clerks, plus the custodial and cafeteria staffs to supervise, to say nothing of an annex."

Both the *number* and *types* of assistants available to the principal will also determine the areas of responsibility in which he will personally be most active. In two of the out-of-town schools visited by this investigator, the principals were assisted by only one vice-principal and were more or less expected to do the master schedule themselves. Since the duties of these assistants were directed mainly toward discipline, guidance, and extracurricular activities, the principal had to assume the burden of many administrative and organizational problems. The net result, as far as this observer could gather from his visit, was that much less attention was paid by these principals to supervision of instruction than is commonly done by high-school principals in New York City.

Character of the school population. Four of the nine schools visited were located in neighborhoods that either were undergoing serious social changes in the character of their school populations, or that had already undergone these changes and were consequently faced by a pupil population with many economic and social problems. Two of the schools were located in New York City and two in other large cities. The current concerns of their principals, at the time they were visited by this investigator, were: zoning, integration, discipline, and community relationships. The principals were devoting a good deal of their energies, both during and after school hours, grappling with these problems. They therefore tended to delegate or pay less attention to other activities such as the improvement of instruction and the curriculum.

On the other hand, in three other schools visited by this investigator, in favored neighborhoods with a large proportion of college-bound pupils, the principals reported that they spent a great deal of time with problems of college admissions and with the many pressures of highly articulate communities. The proportion of responsibilities personally assumed by them in connection with Parents' Associations and community activities was 100 per cent compared with figures of 65 and 59 per cent reported for all schools.

Competency of the staff. One principal, when asked why he shared only 25 per cent of his responsibilities with his assistants, whereas the city-wide average was 36 per cent, replied: "I wish I could only rely more on my department chairmen. I have three acting heads with little or no experience and I have two others whose personality is such that they hinder rather than help the administration." Whether this situation reflected the personality of the principal or the unfortunate lack of competent supervisors in the particular school, it is difficult to say. However,

it was this observer's impression that the principal's evaluation was basically correct. On the other hand, the same principal delegated 31 per cent of his organizational and managerial duties to administrative assistants because he claimed they were highly competent. Still another principal attributed his failure to delegate a larger portion of his administrative work (he delegated only 10 per cent of his responsibilities) to the incompetency of one of his assistants.

There is little doubt that a significant factor in this delegation of responsibility is the competency of one's assistants. Their special aptitudes will determine which particular duties are personally performed by the principal, which are delegated, and which are shared.

While there were many similarities in organization practices among high schools, the specific duties performed by administrative assistants varied considerably from school to school. In most schools the job of requisitioning supplies and allocating funds, while supervised by the principal, is performed by one of the administrative assistants. In one school visited by the investigator the principal was working assiduously at the details of requisitioning supplies. When asked why he should be spending his time on such matters, he replied that his assistant was unable to do a good job and that he had "botched up" the last one.

Degree of control exercised by the central office. The character of the principal's work and the areas of responsibility to which he will devote himself will be influenced considerably by the degree of control exercised by the central office. Whether such control or lack of control is desirable is not for the moment under consideration. For example, in some school systems outside of New York City, formal written reports on classroom supervision are not demanded of principals or department chairmen. At least this is what the investigator found in the three out-of town schools visited. Principals informed him that they left most classroom visitation to department heads, and that their own observation of teachers was, on the whole, casual.

In New York City, the high-school division has spelled out in detail the standards of classroom visitation and supervision expected of both high-school principals and department heads. In a circular issued by the division, dated June 10, 1959, the following regulations were set down for the principal.

Since, by law, the principal is the responsible administrative and pedagogical head of the school, it is his obligation to supervise chairmen, teachers, and those not included in department organizations.

The principal is required by the By-Laws of the Board of Education to pay particular attention to the classroom work of permanent substitutes and probationers. It is recommended that he pay one visit a year to each of these and file a written report on each such visit.

It is his obligation also to pay frequent visits to regularly appointed teachers whose work is unsatisfactory.

A conference is to be held with each teacher who is visited and for whom a written report is to be filed.⁴

Since permanent substitutes and teachers on probation constitute in many schools from 20 to 50 per cent of the staff, the burden placed upon the principal may be very heavy. This is a job which he cannot delegate. It is, therefore, not surprising to find that principals listed classroom visits as one of their most time-consuming activities.

The Principal

While various factors in school organizations may help to explain why principals differ in the degree to which they will delegate responsibility, equally significant in any appraisal of executive behavior are the character, temperament, and personal philosophy of the principal. This is one tentative conclusion reached by the investigator as a result of his personal observations and study of the problem.

The principal's perception of his role as an executive. Writers in the field of school administration recognize the fact that the pattern of organization employed in a school may be "partly determined by the conception of management of the school principal."⁵ If the principal believes that he must have a hand in all decisions, he will tend to delegate fewer of his responsibilities and try to perform personally or share in the performance of most of his duties. On the other hand, if his perception of his role is that he should make only the most important decisions, he will delegate both the authority and responsibility for most of his work to his subordinates.

Although a high-school principalship is in no way comparable to the presidency of the United States, it is interesting to examine different viewpoints on the role of an executive as exemplified by two of our presidents, Eisenhower and Franklin D. Roosevelt. In describing how Eisenhower operated the executive office, Robert J. Donovan says the following: "Along with the procedural changes in the Cabinet and the National Security Council, Eisenhower made important changes designed to bring a greater orderliness into White House business. Most notably, he imported from the Army a form of staff system in which all functions and responsibilities flow in a more or less fixed order and sequence from the President on down."⁶ As a result, a considerable amount of the work formerly performed in past administrations by the President himself, was handled by the assistants to the President and his Cabinet.

Franklin D. Roosevelt, on the other hand, wanted people to bring decisions to him for consideration. According to Professor Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., Roosevelt took great pride that he made at least 35 decisions to

⁴ High School Division, Board of Education of the City of New York, "Circular No. 179, 1959-59 Re: Supervisory Practices," June 10, 1959.

⁵ Paul B. Jacobson; William C. Reavis; and James D. Logsdon. *The Effective School Principal*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1959. P. 39.

⁶ Robert J. Donovan. *Eisenhower, The Inside Story*. New York: Harper & Bros. 1959. Pp. 69-70.

each one made by Calvin Coolidge. Schlesinger claims that the President "deliberately organized or disorganized his system of command to insure that important decisions were passed to the top."⁷

The investigator found the views of high-school principals toward their job somewhat analogous to those attributed to our Presidents. One high-school principal expressed himself thus: "I try to organize my work so that my two administrative assistants can run the school without me. I restrict my activities to basic policy-making and community relations. Insofar as possible, I expect my assistants to make decisions and to carry on as if I were not here at all." The data supplied by this principal's questionnaire seemed to support his views on delegation of responsibility. He reported that he delegated to others 56 per cent of his duties in the area of organization and management. This figure should be compared with the city-wide average of 33 per cent for the same area of responsibility. A second principal, of an out-of-town school, who expressed a similar philosophy reported that he delegated 50 per cent of his duties listed in Area I of the job-analysis in this study.

The opposing philosophy of management which believes that as many decisions as possible should come up for review by the chief executive, was exemplified by three principals whom the investigator visited. One of them, in the course of an interview, stated, "I like to keep my hands in most everything that is going on in this school. I have the final responsibility and I want to make sure that I'm consulted about decisions." The three principals reported that they personally performed 51 per cent of all responsibilities, delegated to others only about 15 per cent of their duties, and shared in the performance of the remaining 34 per cent.

In between the two clear-cut philosophies of management are gradations and variations. It must also be remembered that other factors enter in the total picture such as the personality of the executive, his philosophy of education, and institutional factors which have already been mentioned.

The principal's personality and philosophy of education. Inextricably related to the principal's perception of his role as an executive are his personality and temperament and his philosophy of education. Just how much each of these forces influence the total conduct of the principal, there is no way of knowing. What is set down here is, therefore, purely theoretical in nature. Nevertheless, such factors must be recognized.

Personality factors may and will influence the principal's perception of his role. If he is the sort of man who finds it difficult to relate to people, he will tend to delegate many responsibilities which involve meeting and conferring with teachers, students, and parents. On the other hand, if the principal likes people and gets along with them, he may emphasize those phases of his job which bring him into contact with members of his staff. Since human beings tend to exercise the skills and abilities in which

⁷ Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr. *The Age of Roosevelt: The Coming of the New Deal*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin. 1959. P. 528.

they succeed, the principal who devotes a good deal of attention to administrative detail and organization may be pursuing the course that nets him the greatest personal satisfaction. Similarly, the principal who has a capacity for building human relationships, may be incapable of good organization. The principal who feels insecure as an individual may demand that his subordinates consult him at every step, lest by acting independently they challenge his ability and authority.

Referring once again to the analogy furnished by the presidency of the United States, it is interesting to quote Schlesinger's assessment of Franklin D. Roosevelt's personality as an executive: "The result of this competitive theory of administration was often confusion and exasperation on the operating level. . . . This was in part on Roosevelt's side an instinct for self-preservation; in part, too, the temperamental expression of a restless, curious, and untidy personality. As his doctors once said, Roosevelt 'loved to know everything that was going on and delighted to have a finger in every pie.'"⁸

A third factor which influences the actions and conduct of the principal is his philosophy of education. Here again the school is, to use a well-known phrase, "a reflection of the length and shadow of the principal." In general, it was the investigator's impression, that all of those whom he visited or met were genuinely devoted to the democratic ideal of providing an education for all children in accordance with their abilities, interests, and needs. However, they differ as to what was significant in arriving at this ideal. Those who thought that guidance was all important devoted more of their time to this area and tended to delegate their responsibilities in supervision, as far as it was possible, to their department chairmen. Others who felt that little else could be done for the slow pupil than was already being done, directed their energies to programs for the bright. Those who felt that good organization and strong discipline were most significant paid a great deal of attention to these matters and left curriculum and teaching to chairmen and their staff.

In the course of his visits to schools and in interviews with many principals, the investigator met all of the types described above. Some principals were more one-sided in their activities than others. However, it would be impossible to isolate any of these variables and to relate them to the statistical data supplied by principals in their answers to the questionnaire.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 527-528.

Principal in Profile

M. DALE BAUGHMAN

THE effective principal in the modern high school has been described in the educational literature as having a multiplicity of virtues. Indeed, no less than seventy-five traits have been elaborated upon in one way or another by one writer or another. A paragon embodying these many desirable qualities is not easy to find. Perhaps he doesn't exist. Certainly it is folly to think that there are enough of these "superman" principals to staff our present and planned high schools. Which qualities really do count?

The "Principal of the Year Award," 1958-1959, went to a person described as "a young man. . . old enough to be level-headed, yet young enough to radiate the energies and enthusiasms of youth. He has a keen sense of humor, a frequent, full-bodied laugh; yet a serious, honest approach to the problems of his profession. He possesses a knack of guiding factions to work harmoniously together; he engenders proud support from enthusiastic patrons. This man is, in our opinion, the staunchest of friends, the finest of leaders and the most capable of executives. . . ."¹

Here is another provocative description of a principal. This one is hypothetical. He was described by a student in my course in high-school administration. This description came to me in an unsolicited letter after the completion of the course. It read, in part: "This course has caused me no little thought. You have given us much and I'm sure we have been challenged and stimulated. Now I would like to express to you the type of principal for which I'm looking. He is between thirty and fifty-five. It's not so much the years that count for me, but what these years have to say. What are their influences on this man's life and work? He will have to be a mature man, one mature in judgment, character, and responsibility. . . .

"He must also be a tall and strong man. By tall I mean one who is above the trivia of life and yet who can work under the most discouraging circumstances. He must be tall because people will always be looking to him and it always adds when one can look up for help. He must be a strong man, a man strong in his convictions and yet gentle even as a shepherd among his sheep. He must be a paragon in the eyes of all who behold him. . . . I mean he must be working within himself and within his profession to improve. He must continually be appraising his sense of values.

¹ *The Principals Letter*, January 27, 1959, Arthur C. Croft Publications.

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One, though he knew much at thirty, knows much less at fifty; one who has realized he is not the fountain of wisdom. Such a man will be distinguishable by the quiet, confident, and self-composed manner which are the overt manifestations of a matured intellect and life. Someday, in some small way, I hope to resemble this man."

These word pictures of desirable high-school principals—one a walking, talking administrator, the other a "being" of the imagination—are helpful and stimulating, but they are rather general. Actually, they describe for the most part not only a good principal but also a good person. The principal ought to be a good person, but more than that he must be an effective principal. Here is the writer's effective principal in profile. It assumes that he has adequate educational and professional preparation.

Takes immediate, aggressive action. Such behavior on the part of the principal does not mean to imply constant use of snap judgments nor does it refer to hurried decisions forced by pressures. Rather, it intends to point out the effect of planned action based upon diagnosis. Yes, diagnosis precedes the dose!

True, some situations will call for the "incubation" technique. The principal sometimes successfully postpones action indefinitely while giving relevant ideas time and opportunity to develop. This procedure is not recommended, however, for general and habitual application. As Father Georges Pire put it, "It's better to get one little apple tree planted than a thousand trees in a dream orchard."

A principal of action needs not to be convinced before he acts. If he does, he isn't really a man of action. Never do we expect the chess player, before making his move, to debate the issue of the recreational and intellectual values of chess. Yet "Pop gun" action against one's will, under pressure, is seldom, if ever, effective action. There may be an "out." Under such circumstances if one has a choice, he can best answer "No" because a "No" may be easily changed to a "Yes." The reverse may not be so simply done.

Exhibits drive and energy. The principal with drive and energy doesn't wear out thinking about work. Samuel Johnson put it succinctly, "Nothing will ever be attempted if all possible objections must first be overcome." True, the principal can't do everything at once, but he can do something at once.

Associated with drive and energy should be enthusiasm. Spiritless principals are not apt to storm the citadel or overwhelm obstacles. Enthusiasm lightens burdens. Enthusiasm is a potent convincer and persuader. The principal without it is like a newsboy without his "holler."

Possesses the "service" motive. Servant behavior on the part of the principal? Why not? Albert Einstein once said, "It is high time the ideal of success should be replaced with the ideal of service." Here is an expression worthy of deepest thought and consideration. Perhaps we will find that our most successful principals are not the ones who *supervise* the

greatest number of teachers and pupils, but rather, are those who *serve* the greatest number of teachers and pupils. It may well be then that leadership and service do "spiral in unison."

If servant behavior is made a part of the leadership cloak, criticisms directed at the principal may diminish in number and severity. This, however, will not eliminate the principal's need to keep his coastline big enough to harbor some incoming craft laden with criticism. There is solace in the Chinese proverb, "It is the great tree that attracts the wind." Too, it's well to remember an old song title, "You're Nobody 'Till Somebody Loves You." In school administration you're nobody 'til somebody criticizes you. Most likely Junius was right when he remarked, "If one throws salt at thee, thou wilt receive no harm, unless thou art raw." When a principal is criticized, it is likely that he has either done something worth while or refrained from doing something foolish; so, he should be congratulated.

Exhibits friendly and likeable behavior. Friendly and likeable? Yes! "One of the boys?" Perhaps not, according to psychologist Fred Fiedler of the University of Illinois. Professor Fiedler, after seven years of research attempting to discover what kind of leader creates maximum group effort, found that a leader may actually diminish his own power when he becomes "too close" to his subordinates. Aloofness, along with other leadership qualities, plus approval and trust of subordinates may spur a group to a united and super-elevated effort.

Psychologist Fiedler studied fraternity men, factory foremen, basketball teams, bomber crews, and consumer cooperatives in his search to identify the kind of leader who kindles team effort. It's more than possible that the results of this study have implications for school administrators. Perhaps a principal can be both a "people-pleaser" and a "purpose-accomplisher."

Demonstrates persistent effort. Persistence fused with some talent is an irresistible force. The principal with such a force who is willing to learn through trial-and-error will surely succeed. Jesse Stuart in *The Thread That Runs so True* tells of a night hike in which he became lost in a blizzard and had to sleep in a fodder shock. Next morning when he thawed out, his first move was not ahead but backward. In his words, "I retraced my steps. I wanted to see where I made my mistake." This is principal behavior. Look back once in a while and see where you made *your* mistake! There should be no conflict here with the principle of immediate, aggressive action, and the principal is admonished, "Slow and sure may be better than fast and flimsy."

Does better under tension. Visceral relaxation accompanied by intellectual tension might describe the high-school principal who moves his school forward. Just as primordial man could vault a broad stream with a sapling when his life was in danger and just as a modern star athlete in keen competition can set new records, a "star" principal performs more

competently under stress. He responds to the challenge whatever its nature or source.

Since the typical principal is a "joiner," one more club can't over-extend him. Membership in the Relaxation Club of America (there is such a club—I belong) may prove to be a valuable affiliation even though the principal attends no meetings.

Communicates effectively. It's easy to lose the needle of communication in the haystack of discourse, and it isn't just the quiet person who sometimes doesn't say anything. As a factor in not only preventing impasses but in dissolving them as well, effective communication is a powerful force.

As an orator, Cicero, in his day, earned many plaudits. Demosthenes, on the other hand, by the style, clarity, and enthusiasm of his orations, caused his hearers to act. A high level of audience rating on the one hand, a high level of action on the other. True, this is but one kind of communication, and in its other forms it must be effective and may be if it becomes a major concern of the principal.

Thinks objectively. Although the best principal is not completely devoid of theory, he will expend his energies in objective thinking. He is primarily an implementer of administrative technique, not a developer of administrative theory. The latter function, under our present educational framework, rests most heavily upon professors of school administration, social science, and political science. This is not to say that the practicing principal could not do creative thinking in his applied social science. If he were not committed to action in keeping with acceptable present standards of high-school operation, he could and should try his hand at the origination of some administrative theory. The point is, the public high-school principalship, as it now exists, is not a position for an abstract conceptualizer.

Practices empathy in his personnel relationships. He always endeavors to feel "with" not "for" those who are to be served by his leadership. To borrow seven simple one-syllable words from Sydney Harris, the journalist, "See him as the child he was." The teacher, the pupil, the board member, the parent, the bookman, the citizen, or the custodian who reveals traits undesirable to the common goal of the school is to be viewed by the principal as he was before the prejudice, the curtness, or the cynicism engulfed him. Only in this way can he be as my student described him, "a tall and strong man, above the trivia of life, and mature in judgment, character, and responsibility." Finally, the effective principal would do well to keep in mind the Indian prayer, "Oh God, never let me judge another man until I have walked in his moccasins for two weeks."

Exercises instruction-minded leadership. The good high-school principal has a "crush on the classroom." You'll find him there frequently. This is by no means a common characteristic of principals across the land. In spite of a vast movement in the past half-century, emanating in the ele-

mentary school, to make the supervision of instruction a major part of principalship behavior, it is probable that, for countless principals, the classroom holds no affinity.

Is it true that, as Cubberly in 1934 wrote in the Introduction to Douglas and Boardman's *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, The movement has slowly extended upward and today is rapidly changing the character of the high-school principalship"? In this writer's opinion it is not uncommon for principals to emphasize communication, the hearing of cases, the management of details, and general supervision to the neglect of the improvement of the learning process. It ought to be apparent that educational effectiveness is a necessary adjunct to administrative effectiveness, and that the achievement of the former hinges on the principal's high priority to exert genuine leadership in the pupil-teacher-materials of learning triad.

Detention as a Disciplinary Measure

LOUIS GRANT BRANDES

THE practice of having students serve time before or after school for tardiness, cutting, and/or other rule infractions in an accepted disciplinary measure in many high schools. This practice is commonly known as detention. The *pros* and *cons* as to the merits of detention as a disciplinary measure are open to discussion. The kinds of questions being raised concerning detention are:

1. To what extent are detention practices being used in our high schools?
2. Are some high schools operating effectively without making use of detention practices?
3. Should we discontinue detention practices in our high schools?
4. If detention practices are discontinued, what compensating control measures should be provided?

To provide information to assist in formulating policy for the two high schools of the Alameda Unified School District, a study of detention practices in large California high schools was undertaken. A "grass root" reaction was desired. Hence, a questionnaire was planned and circulated.

The questionnaire. High schools including grades 9 through 12 or grades 10 through 12 and reporting enrollments of over 1,000 in the *California School Directory, 1959-1960*, were listed in order of appearance in the directory. There were 245 such schools. One hundred twenty-two questionnaires were mailed. No follow-up requests were made. One hundred eleven of the questionnaires were completed and returned. Three returns were not tallied; one was incomplete and two were from schools reporting enrollments less than 1,000.

Do you have a detention plan operating in your school? Representatives from 47 schools responded *Yes*; 61 responded *No*. Twenty-three of the representatives from the 47 schools responding *Yes* (48.9%) and 43 of the representatives from the 61 schools responding *No* (70.5%) were principals.

Enrollment, type area, and location in state as related to response. There was no apparent relation between the size of the school and the types of areas reported (urban, semi-urban, or rural) and a response of *Yes* or *No* to the previous question. For the purpose of comparing northern and southern sections of the state, a line formed by the southern boundaries of Monterey, Kings, Tulare, and Inyo counties and the northern boundaries of San Luis Obispo, Kern, and San Bernadino counties was used. Representatives of twenty-four (48%) of fifty schools located in the

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northern section and 22 of 58 schools located in the southern section indicated a detention plan in operation (37.9%). Representatives from schools in the San Jose Area in the northern section and from the San Diego area in the southern section indicated they did not have a detention plan in operation in their schools.

YES RESPONSES TO "DO YOU HAVE A DETENTION PLAN OPERATING IN YOUR SCHOOL?"

Who has the responsibility for keeping records of detention time assigned and/or served? The representatives from all schools indicating a detention plan responded to this item. Twenty-four indicated that the responsibility was placed with subordinate administrators (vice principals, deans, and/or assistant principals), 8 with assigned detention teachers, 7 with attendance officers (registrar, director of attendance, or coordinator of attendance), 6 with the teachers assigning the detention time, and 2 with departmental detention teachers.

Is detention served in a regularly assigned detention room? Representatives from 46 schools responded on this item; 34 responded Yes, 12 responded No. Selected comments provide an "over-view" of comments by representatives of schools:

"A regular classroom is designated as the detention room."

"A large study hall serves as the detention room every day after school."

"Each department handles its own detention."

"Detention can also be served with classroom teachers after school."

"The teacher assigned to detention is given credit for a one-hour teaching assignment."

"Each teacher is responsible for handling his own detention."

"Detention is served in the dean's outer office."

"Our detention is served on 'the bench,' which is near the dean's office."

What kinds of rule infractions result in assignment of detention time? Representatives from 46 schools responded on this item. The infractions mentioned are listed in order of frequency of mention as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Tardiness | 8. Make-up work |
| 2. Cutting | 9. Suit cuts in physical education |
| 3. Rule violations | 10. Forged notes |
| 4. Unapproved behavior | 11. Student court violations |
| 5. Classroom disturbances | 12. Poor grades |
| 6. Leaving campus without permission | 13. Poor citizenship |
| 7. Smoking | 14. Coming to class without books |
| | 15. Disrespect for teachers |

A number of the school representatives indicated that detention was assigned for tardiness and/or cutting only.

Who assigns detention time? Representatives from all of the schools indicating a detention plan responded on this item. Thirty-six representatives mentioned the administrative officers (principal, vice principals, assistant principals, and deans), 15 mentioned classroom teachers, 12 men-

tioned attendance officers (registrar, director of attendance, or coordinator of attendance), 2 mentioned student court, and one mentioned counselors. Eleven representatives mentioned the vice principals or deans as the only persons who could assign detention time; 8 indicated teachers were the only ones who assigned detention time.

At what time is the detention room open? Representatives from 42 schools responded on this item. Thirty-two representatives reported that detention was held after school, 3 that it was held in the morning prior to school, one that it was held at noon, and 6 that it was held before school and after school. Time that the room was reported open ranged from 15 minutes to 75 minutes, with the majority reporting an hour. Detention was usually reported as being held daily, with a number of schools reporting the days as Monday through Thursday and Tuesday through Thursday. One school reported that the boys made up time before school and the girls after school. Some representatives indicated that the operation of school buses created a problem in providing a time when all youngsters could make up detention time.

What kinds of penalties are invoked for failure to make up assigned detention time? Representatives from 43 schools responded on this item. The penalties mentioned are listed in order of frequency of mention:

1. Additional detention time assigned
2. Suspension from school
3. Parental conference
4. Conference with administrative officer; warning
5. Lowering citizenship grade
6. Referral to student court
7. Demerits
8. Exclusion from school

A pattern of dealing with failure to make up detention time, as indicated by several representatives, is as follows: If a student fails to make up time, after several notices, he is called before an administrative officer and warned to take care of his obligation; additional detention may be added. Upon continued failure to make up time, a parental conference is scheduled; if necessary student is suspended from school. If student still doesn't comply with school regulations, he is further suspended or excluded from school. Demerits, referral to student court, and lowering of citizenship marks are also used to encourage students to make up assigned time.

Are you considering discontinuing the practice of assigning detention time? Representatives from 45 schools responded on this item; 40 indicated No, one indicated Yes, and four remained uncertain (Yes and No). Selected comments provide an "over-view" of the comments by representatives:

"We evaluate our system each year and are satisfied with it. We wonder what we did before we had a detention program."

"We do not plan to consider a change until we find a more effective means of dealing with minor infractions."

"We do not like detention, but see no other effective alternative."

General comments. Representatives of schools indicating a detention plan were asked to give a brief evaluation of their program. Selected comments offer suggestions and describe value of a detention plan:

"Detention provides a punishment for certain infractions. We limit its use to teachers for tardiness and to the vice principals for cutting and certain behavior infractions."

"Youngsters usually expect punishment for wrong-doing. Detention, reasonably and thoughtfully given, provides the means."

"An important function of detention is to identify students making a poor school adjustment. Many of these students can be helped *via* counseling services and administrative action. Failure to make up detention time lends evidence of maladjustment to the records of a small group of individuals that must be identified and removed from a regular school program."

"A detention program without follow-up on the part of administrative officers is doomed to failure. Detention time cannot be permitted to accumulate beyond a reasonable limit. Counseling with students and parents concerning infractions resulting in an accumulation of detention time must take place."

"Wholesale assignment of detention time, on the part of teachers, is meaningless. If, however, assignment to an individual is emphasized, and disapproval indicated, this means of punishment may be made meaningful and effective."

"The effective operation of the detention rooms is the making or breaking of the detention plan. Assigned teachers must be strong and operate the detention room with an 'iron hand.' Students must be on time; we have a tardy bell and keep students out if late. Students must have study material to get credit for time served. Roll procedures must be strictly observed; roll is signed under direct supervision. Teachers can (and should) cancel students' time, up until the last minute of period, for misbehavior."

"Detention is no more the answer to discipline control than are parent conferences, student conferences with counselors and administrative officers, suspensions, and other means of control, when used without consideration for an over-all control plan. When detention is used as a part of a total control plan, it can be an effective means of school punishment."

NO RESPONSES TO "DO YOU HAVE A DETENTION PLAN OPERATING IN YOUR SCHOOL?"

What kind of control measures do you provide in your school that serves as deterrent for tardiness, cutting, and/or other rule infractions? All representatives of schools indicating they did not operate a detention plan responded to this item. Measures reported, in order of frequency of mention, were as follows:

1. Suspension from school
2. Parental conference
3. Conference with administrative officer (principal, vice-principals, deans, or assistant principals)

4. Program adjustment (removal from class)
5. Parental contact by letter or by phone
6. Referral to counselors
7. Detained after school by teachers
8. Loss of privileges (eligibility)
9. Teachers conferences
10. Demerits
11. Assigned work detail
12. Placed on school probation
13. Transfer to another school (social adjustment transfer)
14. Request for legal action
15. Referral to student court
16. Withhold diploma

Some schools indicated they suspended students upon the first cut, while others indicated suspension on 2nd, 3rd, or 4th cut; three tardies were usually considered the equivalent of a cut. The policies reported by two schools on tardies and cutting were as follows:

"Three tardies constitute a cut. The first cut requires a parent contact. Upon a second cut, the student is suspended until a parent conference is held. A third cut results in a 5 to 10-day suspension. Teachers call parents on second tardy."

"The first three tardies are handled by teachers. Upon the fourth tardy, a letter is sent home requiring a parent conference. If there is a fifth tardy, the student is removed from class with loss of credit."

A general pattern for dealing with minor infractions presented by several representatives is as follows:

1. Student-teacher conference (after school)
2. Student-counselor conference
3. Conference with administrative officer
4. Program adjustment
5. Parent conference with administrative officer
6. Suspension
7. Request for legal action
8. Dismissal from school

Do you feel the above mentioned measures are effective in your school? All but one of the representatives indicating they did not provide a detention plan responded on this item; 51 responded *Yes*, one responded *No*, and 8 were uncertain (*Yes* and *No*). Typical of comments by those responding *Yes* were the following:

"I do not think any system is completely effective, but we feel our system works better than the use of detention."

"No system is effective with some of the non-conformists. There are a number of cases that no measures can reach."

"We have few repeaters."

"The one weak link is that some teachers will not report violations."

"We keep selling the idea that the school record is important."

"If students know in advance what the requirements and penalties are, they will abide by the regulations."

Who is responsible for enforcement of the measures? All of the school representatives responded on this item. The following members, in order of frequency of mention, were reported:

1. Members of administrative staff (vice-principals, deans, or assistant principals)
2. Teachers
3. Counselors
4. Attendance officers (registrars, director of attendance, etc.)
5. Student court

Most schools placed the responsibility directly with a vice principal or dean who received assistance from teachers, attendance officers, counselors, and/or the student courts in carrying out disciplinary measures.

A number of schools emphasized that they expect teachers to maintain classroom control, as indicated by the comment of one representative: "We expect teachers to maintain control by keeping groups of individuals after school."

Are you considering initiating an alternate control plan such as detention? The representatives of 57 schools responded on this item; 56 indicated No, one indicated Yes. Typical comments from the representatives were:

"It (detention) creates problems in itself."

"We had detention and it did not work."

Have you ever used detention as a control measure in your school? Representatives from 59 schools responded on this item; 44 indicated Yes, 17 indicated No. Typical comments by representatives responding Yes were as follows:

"We had a very unsatisfactory experience with detention; it penalizes the teacher more than the student."

"The number of students and the number of hours of detention became unreasonable. It took too much of everyone's time and did not control tardiness."

"I feel very strongly that detention is of the 'dark ages' of education."

"We used it for one year only."

"Our present system is much more effective; 'a big stick and a soft glove.'"

"Tardies and truancies are less since we discontinued detention halls."

General comments. Representatives of schools were asked to give a brief evaluation of their control program and otherwise comment on alternate plans. Excerpts that "pretty well" summarize the comments are as follows:

"We found that detention was relatively ineffective. The same offenders attended the detention rooms time after time. Many students preferred to spend time in the detention room (to going home) and became involved in the environment there. Detention sometimes accumulated to the point where it was impossible to serve unless the student 'lived to a ripe old age.' We have tried detention rooms on several different plans and found none of them effective."

"My disillusion with the use of detention was a gradual one extending over the entire period of the five years we maintained the system. We found that many students felt that serving detention time was a way they could 'pay' their penalty and thus 'clear' their records. A student might habitually cut a certain period and religiously 'make it up' by serving detention. There was no real personal growth in acceptance of responsibility to attend class. Such growth, in my opinion, is the only valid claim for any system of punishment."

"We found the following true of the non-conformist group: They often committed misdeeds to accompany friends in detention. They would obtain such a backlog of detention that they would be committed for the balance of the term long before the end of the term; hence no provision for future offenses. Being prone to cut school, they would also cut detention."

"For us, detention deteriorated into a competition to see who in the 'detention club' could accumulate the most hours. It worked for those who didn't need control, not for those who did."

"Detention removed students too far from the teacher in whose room negligence occurred. A strong teacher can maintain a good detention group. The weaker teacher will, whenever possible, send her problems to a detention room rather than solve issues directly with the students. We have found individual teachers can handle their own situations much more satisfactorily; detention is a waste of time."

"We would never go back to a detention system. Our present system of attacking a problem immediately through conference with students and parents, and in more severe cases, with all persons (teachers, parents, counselors, probation department, etc.) in joint conferences, produces some really effective results. Such joint action more often uncovers the real cause of difficulty and places responsibility on the proper people for individual behavior. When we reach a dead end, after repeated efforts to arrive at a solution, we drop the student or recommend expulsion. It's surprising how well this keeps the 'fringe' characters under control."

"Inexperienced teachers, untrained personnel, and confused parents frequently suggest detention."

"It has been my experience that the answers to most discipline problems are firm rules regarding them. Schools with strong administration have very little trouble with discipline. We do not have to have serious discipline problems in the public schools."

"When a school can operate without a detention room and have a satisfactory control of students, it is beginning to provide a desirable school environment."

Discipline codes. Five school representatives forwarded copies of their disciplinary codes, as adopted by their school boards. Topics covered in the codes included philosophy, attendance regulations, habitual failures, overt acts, identification of offenders, and recommended control measures. Violations covered included obscenity and vulgarity, tobacco, alcohol and narcotics, fighting, hazing, personal appearance, thefts, gambling, forging notes, vandalism, carrying weapons, creating classroom disturbance, and use or possession of pyrotechnics.

REFLECTIONS

Results of this survey indicate that many large California high schools with enrollments of over 1,000 are experiencing satisfactory results from both detention and non-detention behavior control practices. If this sampling is representative of all large California high schools, then less than half of such schools have a detention plan in operation. Both the schools reportedly having a detention plan and those not having a detention plan are scattered in most localities of California. However, a larger percentage of schools reportedly having a detention plan are located in the northern section of California, while a larger percentage who reportedly do not make use of detention are located in the southern section.

In schools reportedly having a detention plan, the records of detention time assigned are usually maintained under the direction of a vice principal or dean. The detention time is usually assigned for tardiness and cutting, and to a lesser degree for minor rule infractions. Time is usually assigned by teachers and/or by an administrative officer who is in charge of discipline. Assignment of additional detention time, parental conference, and suspension are actions taken for consistent failure to make up detention. Values attributed to detention include: (1) provision of a punishment limited to use for tardiness, cutting, and minor rule infractions, which is a part of a total control plan; (2) assistance in identifying youngsters with behavior problems for counseling purposes and administrative action; and (3) recognition and disapproval by school officers for wrong-doing on the part of students. There is little indication that school representatives making use of detention in their schools would be willing to discard it; on the other hand there seems to be a willingness to consider a control plan that would be more effective than detention.

Control measures reportedly used by schools not having detention appear to be similar to measures used by schools who do. The differences are: (1) the omission of a centrally operated detention room and (2) a considerably greater number of measures are mentioned which are used to provide student control. The representatives from schools reportedly not making use of detention felt that their control measures were effective and gave no indication that they would consider a detention plan. The greater percentage of principals responding from schools reportedly having no detention, as compared with a greater percentage of subordinate officers responding from schools reportedly having a detention plan, may be a measure of importance placed on student control measures. A majority of representatives from schools reportedly not having detention had once used detention as a control measure and had discontinued using it. These representatives were adversely critical of detention, intimating that time spent with detention could be used more adequately to help remove causes resulting in the assignment of detention time. The reactions of these representatives are indeed so convincing that schools making use of detention plans might well evaluate them in view of other possibilities.

Exclusion from School as a Disciplinary Tool

WILLIAM P. STRUNK

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

OF THE many responsibilities given an assistant principal, one of the most demanding in time and exacting of energy is that of enforcing discipline within the school. This responsibility is, of course, shared with all the other faculty members, but the most severe problems fall to him. Most of his decision making is centered in this area. Problems of pupil misbehavior—some trivial and inconsequential, others important and of considerable consequence—are daily being presented to the assistant principal for his study and disposition. Whatever working relationship an assistant principal enjoys in his school among his associates is determined more largely by the manner in which he disposes of these teacher-presented problems than by any other single factor. This is, perhaps, unfortunate, but true.

In order to be able to carry out his responsibilities in the area of pupil discipline, the assistant principal is given certain powers and the authority to exercise them. The greatest single one of these, delegated to him by the principal, is the power of excluding a student from school for three days as a means of discipline. In the rules and regulations of the Cincinnati Board of Education, Section 10.10, the power is stated thusly: "Exclusion from school, for a period not to exceed three days, shall be used as a means of discipline only for serious offenses against the welfare of the school or for gross violation of the rules of the school, and only in cases where other forms of discipline are not likely to be sufficiently effective. Such exclusion shall be effected only with the approval of the principal who shall immediately notify the child's parent of the action and the reasons therefor in writing; he shall also notify immediately the appropriate attendance center by telephone and send a copy of the letter to the supervisor of the attendance center."

A careful reading of this regulation reveals that the wording, except for the last sentence, is general, leaving the decision to exclude or not to exclude entirely to the discretion of the individual principal. He must decide whether or not the offense is serious; whether or not it is against the welfare of the school; whether or not it is a *gross* violation of school rules; and, finally, whether or not another means of discipline might do the job as well as exclusion. The rule is stated intelligently, taking into

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account the fact that it would not only be unwise to list specific causes for exclusion, but also impossible in a system as large and complex as Cincinnati. The differences among the various neighborhoods and among the various school administrators themselves are taken into account and action is not restricted by excessively limiting statement of rule. The individual principal is allowed, within reason, to exercise his highest administrative faculty discretion. It is of the utmost importance, then, that the person granted this power of exclusion use it wisely and that he constantly question his wisdom in applying the power.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXCLUSION

I shall attempt in this section to analyze the effect of exclusion on five groups of persons involved in each exclusion: *first*, the actual pupil excluded; *second*, the pupils left in the classrooms of the excluded pupil; *third*, the parents of the excluded pupil; *fourth*, the parents of the non-excluded pupils; and *fifth*, the professional staff of the school.

A social worker might maintain that the only legitimate effect to be concerned with is that on the pupil involved. If no change in the behavior of this person can be measured then the exclusion is useless and perhaps worse than that. The school administrator must be concerned with the other four above mentioned parties also. It is not only impossible to ignore them in the act of deciding to exclude a particular pupil or not, but it is an unwise operational practice to do so for neither the excluded pupil nor the administrator acts in a vacuum. Let us examine first the effect on the pupil excluded.

If no change in the behavior of a pupil results, then a disciplinary procedure is meaningless, perhaps even worse than meaningless. Viewed from the point of the individual excluded student only, this is a valid contention and can be a real test of the effectiveness of exclusion on the individual student. With that in mind, let us examine the school records of those students who were excluded from Western Hills Junior High School during the last school year. We shall examine the main four categories: truancy, excessive class cutting, insubordination to teacher, and smoking. In each category, save one, the number of referrals to my office prior to the exclusion shall be counted; then the number of referrals subsequent to the exclusion; and, finally, note shall be made of whether continued infractions of the same rule as caused the exclusion occurred after the exclusion was used as a means of correction. It is only fair to note, however, that such an approach is only a statistical device in many cases. A review of the statistics concerning the excluded pupils shows that a pupil is rarely a problem in one area alone. He is most generally an academic problem, an attendance problem, as well as a disciplinary problem of many varieties. For example, eighteen of the eighty-three pupils excluded were excluded more than once. Only in four of these eighteen cases was the second or third exclusion for the same offense as the first. In the remaining fourteen, the second or third (and in two cases,

fourth) exclusion was for a different cause. Human behavior is so complex even when normal that it is impossible to isolate its components and view them as separate from a whole.

Effect of Exclusion on Truancy

On the whole, it would seem, the use of exclusion to stop excessive truanting from school was effective. In only two of nine cases did it fail to stop further similar action. The number of referrals for any disciplinary reason dropped considerably after exclusion for truancy, so that the exclusion seemed to have a wholesome general effect on the students involved. Five pupils who had no referrals of any kind after exclusion were withdrawn from school for work or military service shortly after the exclusion for truancy. The exclusion more or less brought the entire matter of their continuing in school into focus and caused intervention of the attendance department in their cases which in turn resulted in withdrawal. An elaboration of this side effect from exclusions—the setting of the stage for action and the psychologically heightening effect of a problem—will be made at a later point when effect of exclusion on parents is discussed.

Effect of Exclusion on Class Cutting

<i>Case Number</i>	<i>Referrals Before Exclusion</i>	<i>Referrals After Exclusion</i>	<i>Number of Class Cuts After Exclusion</i>
1	13	1	0
2	9	20	5
3	2	9	0
4	0	3	0
5	3	19	4
6	9	4	0
7	3	12	1

Most often the student excluded for cutting classes has a complex of problems which constantly get him sent to the office. For example, one student who was referred to the office 9 times before exclusion from school and 20 times after exclusion; and another student who was referred 3 times before exclusion and 19 times after exclusion, were finally removed from school by juvenile court and placed in correctional institutions. However, in over half the cases, exclusion for excessive class cutting prevented future cuts; but contrary to the general effect noticed in truancy, the general, over-all conduct of the pupil seemed to deteriorate rather than improve. Next, the effect of exclusion on pupils insubordinate to teachers.

Effect of Exclusion on Insubordinate to Teacher

<i>Case Number</i>	<i>Referrals Before Exclusion</i>	<i>Referrals After Exclusion</i>	<i>Incidents of Insubordination After Exclusions</i>
1	1	18	0
2	2	11	0
3	5	1	0
4	5	6	1
5	7	6	0
6	1	3	0
7	5	4	0
8	8	0	0
9	3	0	0
10	1	0	0
11	7	2	0
12	6	6	1
13	10	2	0
14	8	17	0
15	18	1	0

In 13 of the 15 cases (there were 16 excluded for insubordination, but discipline records on 16th case are unavailable) listed, no future insubordination to teachers occurred after the exclusion. In one of the two cases where it did occur again, the pupil was subsequently removed from school by the court and placed in a correctional institution after 17 referrals were made after exclusion. This pupil was also excluded for three other offenses. On the whole, then, the use of exclusion seems to have corrected the type of behavior for which it was used. In 8 of the 15 cases, a general decline in all types of referrals after exclusion was noted.

Effect of Exclusion on Smoking

Finally, a review of the records of those pupils excluded for smoking indicates that in two of the 48 cases a second exclusion was invoked for more smoking, and in one case a pupil was excluded three times for the same offense. In the remaining cases, there were no second offenses. There is no false notion in the mind of the writer, however, that exclusion made any significant inroads against the habit of smoking in school. It is relatively easy for a student to smoke in a restroom or on school grounds and go unnoticed if he exercises a reasonable degree of caution. I am certain in my own mind, also, that many of the youngsters sent home but once for being caught smoking smoked again in school but went un-

noticed. The board regulation concerning smoking as it is written now is unenforceable and is in real need of revision.

There is enough concrete evidence adduced from the foregoing analysis to support the generalization that exclusion does effectively reduce or stop future serious infractions of rules. It might be noted here that in the eight other types of offenses for which exclusion was invoked, there were no second exclusions for similar offenses.

Why is exclusion effective on a pupil? Mainly, I think, because it results in a concentration of attention on the pupil's behavior by himself—most excluded pupils take it seriously and do some serious soul searching—his parents, and the school. In the conference which results before readmittance is granted, all interested parties sit in joint session and survey the matter. Then, too, the other pupils in school have an effect on the excluded pupil by their natural questioning of him on his return.

Effect of Exclusion on the Non-Offending Pupils

We now turn to an examination of the possible effect of exclusion on the non-offending pupils who remain in school. There is, of course, no statistical evidence for examination here. By the very fact that they represent at least 91.7% of the student body of the junior high school, they must be taken into account. America is founded in part on the principle of the greatest good for the greatest numbers. A democratic society should and must have the concern of the individual at heart, but in the last analysis all rules are established for the good of the majority, not a minority. A question any free society must constantly ask itself if it is to survive is how much abuse of the welfare of all can it tolerate from any one individual. A public school must ultimately function in terms of 91% of its students rather than for only 9%.

Most serious offenses are not committed in isolation from fellow students. In most instances, other pupils witness the deed which results in the exclusion of the offender. In some instances, theft and assault for example, pupils are the victims of the offender. When they know a school regulation has been broken either by actually witnessing the offense themselves or by hearing about it through knowledge of another pupil, natural curiosity begins to work. The process runs something like this: here is student X who has "told off" a teacher in front of the class. What is the school (really, what is the teacher) going to do about it? The teacher takes the offending pupil to the office. The pupils see this. They know the teacher has asked the office for some action. Now they wonder what the office will do about the matter. The authority of the school, specifically the teacher, has been defied in some gross way. The position of authority the teacher must have is questioned.

Being reprimanded by a lecture, serving so many hours of detention, writing so many words—these are all used many times for minor infractions. Exclusion from school as punishment with the requirement that the parents must accompany the offending pupil for a conference with the teacher and the office before readmittance is granted points up in a clear way to the pupils who know of the matter how serious the offense was

and that the school denied the offending pupil his right to attend school for three days as a result of his failure to meet his obligations of school citizenship. The precept of considering going to school as a privilege which has concurrent obligations on the part of the pupil is once again established and strengthened by example for the student body (as well as for the offending pupil).

The idea of punishing primarily as an example to others has long ago fallen into disrepute and rightly so; but the fact that example is a strong teacher cannot be denied. Modern psychology has for some time reaffirmed this principle and classroom teachers depend on it every day in the practice of their art. Those who feel exclusions are used too frequently and cite as argument against them the fact that many of the pupils excluded enjoy the three-day legal holiday exclusion gives them fail to take this concept into their thinking. It is undoubtedly true that some pupils do not take their exclusions seriously, but the vast number of normal boys and girls do and consider such punishment as a personal disgrace to be avoided at all costs. And it must never be forgotten that a pupil in school or out of school is always a member of a society and must learn to function within it as well as being an individual.

Effect of Exclusion on Parents

Next to the pupil actually excluded, the persons affected the most by such action are the parents of the excluded pupil. Exclusion has two chief effects on parents. First, it directly involves them in the school conduct of their child. It would be physically impossible and impractical to notify a parent—even by phone—every time his child is referred to the office on some minor disciplinary action. When a student is excluded from school, however, the parent is immediately notified by phone, if at all possible, and a letter summarizing in some detail the reason for the exclusion is sent home within twenty-four hours. Furthermore, each exclusion letter, except for first offense of the no-smoking rule, contains a final paragraph which informs the parent that a conference to discuss the particular offense and the over-all record of the child must be held before readmittance to classes is granted. They are requested to make an appointment at their earliest convenience. Even in first smoking offense cases, an invitation to accompany their child back to school is tendered and encouraged. A particular effort is made to have both parents in rather than just the mother, but no insistence is made on the father in consideration of his job requirements.

The second effect of exclusion on parents takes place during—really becoming concentrated just before—the actual conference in the administrator's office. This is the psychological effect mentioned above. Just as have the excluded pupil, his fellow pupils, and teachers been made aware of the seriousness of his conduct, so too have the parents. The situation is such that their child has been denied his privilege of attending school for three days. Issues and ideas are at their sharpest and clearest. The conduct has been brought into sharp focus and the parent is never more aware of this than during the conference.

This does not mean the school is seeking an advantage on the parent or pupil and wishes to humiliate them. It does mean that all interested parties meet in the same room, and it encourages a cooperative approach to the child's problems. The school, by calling the parents in, tells them it cannot help their child to the full educational opportunities he deserves unless it has their help and understanding. The parent realizes his child cannot get this education when his conduct is such as to exclude him from classes; and the child is made aware of the inseparability of his life at school and at home and that one affects the other. Undoubtedly, the most beneficial aspect of exclusion is that wrought through the parents on their child.

One final effect of a good parent-school-child conference resulting from exclusion is that the parent gets firsthand information concerning not only the specific offense that caused exclusion, but also gets the opportunity to review the child's record *in toto*. Classroom achievement, attendance, and conduct in general are reviewed and suggestions made as to how the home can help the school and the school can help the home. A closer working arrangement between home and school often comes about as a result of an exclusion conference.

What was written above about the effect of exclusion on the pupils witnessing or hearing about the misconduct can also be written concerning the parents of the non-offending pupils. Junior high-school pupils will not generally carry their own troubles home, but they will speak freely of what happened concerning others in their classes. Teachers can attest to the fact that a parent often challenges their child's grades on a comparative basis rather than on their child's merits. "But John Jones got an 85 on this test also, and his period grade was an A," is a cry heard all too frequently. Whether we like it or not, a school is more often judged on the basis of such reasoning than by a more judicious type.

This has a positive side also. The vast majority of parents never have to see a school administrator as the result of the exclusion of their child. When their child does come home and reports that "Johnny So and So" has been excluded for such and such reasons, the parent is once again assured of the quality of the standards of conduct which are being presented to his child and how seriously the school considers them. Most of the criticism of juvenile courts, for example, does not come from parents who have had personal contact with them through their own children. Most of it comes from law abiding people in a community who believe in a rational fashion that it is possible and proper for a court to provide punishment for youth in proportion to the offense and that providing such punishment after due consideration and process does not constitute stupidity, cruelty, or reversion to the days of the Inquisition.

Effect of Exclusion on Teachers

Finally, there is the effect of exclusion on the teachers to be considered. To an assistant principal who must work with teachers on a day-to-day basis, who actually has more face-to-face contact and spends more time

with them than he does with the student body itself, this effect becomes of prime importance. The respect a faculty has for the manner in which an assistant principal takes care of discipline problems presented to him determines to a very large extent the respect they will have for his judgment in all other areas of his job as educational leader. As we noted earlier, this is sometimes unfortunate, as an assistant principal may be an excellent organizer of schedules, a fine speaker who can present school problems to his community, or a man who can size up a teacher's strengths and make maximum utilization of these through class assignments. Yet, if he is lacking teacher respect in his ability to enforce discipline, he might just as well get a different job. An analogy can be made to the classroom teacher who is an excellent scholar, knows his subject thoroughly, but cannot control the pupils in class. Such a teacher is just as useless in the classroom as is an assistant principal who lacks teacher respect.

Assuming a teacher is intelligent, conscientious, and exercises good human judgment in performing his professional duties, he is entitled to the full support of any school administration. There is even considerable strength to the argument which says that a teacher is entitled to support when he is wrong because of the position he occupies in the school. I am not referring to a concept as rigid and extreme as the divine right of monarchy, but rather to one of an organizational structure with relative positions of authority running from top to bottom. Be that as it may, the teacher in the right certainly does deserve and need the support which judiciously applied exclusion can give him. The teacher's theoretical position with the excluded pupil, the parents of the excluded pupil, the pupils remaining in his class and their parents, and with fellow teachers can be given concrete recognition and strength in the exclusion process. The individual teacher can be given concrete assurance of the importance and value placed on his work. It should be noted here, however, that the teacher must already be intelligent, conscientious, loyal, capable of exercising good judgment, and in possession of his own self-respect as well as the respect of those he comes in contact with before exclusion can support these qualities. Exclusion will not make a weak teacher strong. Exclusion cannot create respect; it can only reinforce that which is already present.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Exclusion is a power delegated to an assistant principal which requires continuing evaluation of application in regards to its effect on *all* concerned, not just the pupil excluded.

2. Exclusion time allowable should be extended from a maximum of three days to ten. This will permit differentiation among offenses as to severity and will allow proper time for accumulation of data necessary for effective exclusion conferences. It will also give ample time to involve other auxiliary agencies such as court, attendance centers, and social agencies. It is psychologically sound to have a complete understanding and a final disposition of his case before a child re-enters school.

3. Exclusion alone has no appreciable effect on stopping smoking in the building and/or on grounds. Present board rules on smoking are vague and unenforceable. A more enforceable rule is needed, one similar to the rule in San Diego, California, which makes mere possession of tobacco on school grounds punishable by exclusion of up to ten days. The necessity of having to find a student in the actual act of smoking is unrealistic. Lookouts in restrooms give tips to those smoking in most cases. Besides a more realistic and a more definite board rule, a definite program to inform junior high-school pupils of facts about long-term risks of smoking—lung cancer, for example—is needed. A study in the November 1960 issue of the *Journal for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, reports on a study by the American Cancer Society of 22,000 teenagers in Portland, Oregon. This study concludes this approach is the most effective.

4. The I.Q. scores on the excluded pupils do not correlate well with the large number of failures among such pupils. These pupils as a group should perform better. Are we offering an adequate program for these pupils? Would the large number of days absent decrease and the achievement go up if more suitable programs were offered? A map showing the location of excluded pupils, however, shows that the problem is a social one also. Pupils excluded come from an economically poorer type neighborhood, from homes where the education of parents is less and support of schools on a philosophical basis is weak. A breakdown of votes on the last school levy indicates this area gave the least percentage of votes to the levy anywhere in the city. A different scale of values exists in the homes of many of these pupils.

5. We need more teachers trained in universities on methods of handling the different types of pupil discipline.

6. Much more concentrated counseling work should be done in the seventh grade so that pupil conduct doesn't continue to deteriorate and be at its worst in the ninth grade. A good information program on smoking to seventh-grade pupils could do wonders in discouraging adoption of the habit.

Teachers Evaluate Their Principal

GILBERT R. WELDY

IN THEORY, mutual criticism and evaluation is a sound procedure for those teachers and administrators who are seeking ways of improving their professional performance. More often, criticism and evaluation work only one way, the administrator evaluating his teachers. When the shoe is put on the other foot, the result can be a revelation. If carried out by teachers with a constructive, responsible attitude, the outcome may truly result in improved administrative performance on the part of the sincere principal.

The evaluation instrument which follows is intended to cover comprehensively the areas of responsibility generally carried by the secondary-school principal. It was used in our school anonymously by the teachers in evaluating the professional performance of the author. Responses were kept anonymous in the hope that a more frank and open appraisal would be encouraged. The results, which any principal who uses this or any similar instrument should expect, follow:

1. Teachers will work diligently to make an honest, fair appraisal. Some will spend several hours.
2. Teachers will generally welcome the opportunity to help their principal improve his service to the school.
3. There will be wide disagreement among teachers on the principal's effectiveness, because the knowledge of the principal's work on which the ratings are based is limited, and because of the varying philosophies of educational practice held by teachers.
4. It gives opportunity to the teacher to air complaints and grievances which would otherwise never be exposed.
5. It further gives occasion to disgruntled, unhappy teachers to unload their pet peeves and to "vent their feelings."
6. If the reactions are recorded anonymously, the principal will have little opportunity to satisfy grievances, adjust inequities, or answer complaints.
7. The principal will suffer many moments of frustration as he peruses the ratings, not knowing the source of the response and not knowing the basis for the teacher's evaluation.
8. Teachers will not be able to rate the principal fairly on all specifics, since many are not acquainted with his activity in all areas.
9. Judgments by teachers will be made in many cases on one or two isolated instances where they have personal knowledge of the principal's work (disciplinary judgments, for example).

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10. Since one or several ratings will be checked predominantly by the teachers, the principal *will* have a guide to ways that he might improve his service to his school and community.

While the over-all effect of being evaluated in this fashion can be frustrating and disappointing, the result for the sincere administrator may be that he will be fortified in his philosophy and encouraged to improve his performance. The evaluation instrument which is included here, would of course, need adaptation to the local situation to be of maximum validity. Following is a reproduction of the form given to each of the teachers.

THE CHECK LIST

After being in this position as principal of Crown Point High School for several years, I wonder whether my work has fulfilled the necessary high standards which Crown Point High School deserves. All of us need to stop and reflect about what we are doing from time to time. I am interested in constructive criticism and hope that by intelligent teacher participation in such a venture my work may be improved, and thereby, our school be a better place for students to learn.

Would you please take ten or fifteen minutes to react to the following questions? I suggest that you remain anonymous by printing or typing and by leaving this questionnaire unsigned. The questions are aimed, to a certain extent, at areas where the principal feels he is weak. If there are noteworthy strengths or weaknesses not mentioned here, you are urged to elaborate on them and make any suggestions you care to. Check wherever you feel the answer given applies, or write in a more fitting response.

1. Is the principal democratic, taking into account faculty, student, and community feeling before important decisions are made?
 - () Very democratic for all concerned
 - () Too little attention to faculty opinion
 - () Too little attention to student opinion
 - () Too little attention to community opinion
 - () Very dictatorial
 - () Very inconsistent
 - () Somewhat dictatorial
 - () Somewhat inconsistent
 - () _____
2. Do you consider the principal effective when he attempts to correct a fault in a faculty member's work?
 - () Not tactful or diplomatic
 - () Overly careful, should be more direct
 - () Very tactful and diplomatic
 - () Direct, forceful, and easily understood
 - () Should "get after" teachers more when they are not doing the job
 - () Does not make it a practice to correct teachers
 - () _____

3. Is the principal one whose opinion and judgment you respect, and to whom you go for help with school problems?
- ☐ I never would go to him
 - ☐ Principal will never commit himself
 - ☐ Opinions valued, judgment generally sound
 - ☐ Too difficult to contact and get time
 - ☐ Sometimes he's very helpful, other times not
 - ☐ _____
4. Are school policies (within the principal's authority) complete and carefully drawn, and are they easily referred to? Are they understood by all?
- ☐ Available and well drawn
 - ☐ Not available or understood
 - ☐ Well drawn but not understood well enough
 - ☐ Complete or thorough
 - ☐ School handbook for teachers covers most everything needed for everyday work
 - ☐ _____
5. Do you feel that the principal is readily available and has time to work with you when needed?
- ☐ Always willing to take time
 - ☐ Always available, but appears to have his mind elsewhere
 - ☐ Never available
 - ☐ Out of town too much
 - ☐ Time is too limited for thorough talk
 - ☐ _____
6. Does the principal furnish sufficient supervisory leadership through class visitation?
- ☐ Should visit classes more
 - ☐ Visitation to classes is helpful
 - ☐ Visitation is too frequent
 - ☐ Unscheduled visits would help keep everyone on his toes
 - ☐ Visits are appropriate, but follow-up counseling is poor
 - ☐ _____
7. What is your opinion of faculty meetings as conducted by the principal?
- ☐ Worthwhile—a vital part of our in-service improvement
 - ☐ Useless—same could be accomplished on a bulletin
 - ☐ Not enough open discussion—principal dominates
 - ☐ Not often enough to be truly helpful
 - ☐ Everyone should be required to attend, irregardless of conflicts
 - ☐ Too much griping
 - ☐ Should be concerned with immediate school problems only
 - ☐ Should be concerned with professional development rather than administrative details
 - ☐ _____

8. Do you feel that school organization, scheduling of classes, assigning of duties, control of activities, and other administrative details are planned well?
- ☐ Good organization, very few hitches
 - ☐ Good plans, but not made clear to teachers
 - ☐ Poor planning, slipshod organization
 - ☐ Not enough communication with teachers over plans
 - ☐ _____
9. Does the principal manage to keep a good balance of emphasis on the various extracurricular activities in the school?
- ☐ A well-balanced program with all activities receiving equal encouragement and emphasis
 - ☐ Emphasis and balance depends more on the aggressiveness of the teacher in charge than the principal's encouragement
 - ☐ Plays definite favorites. Activities in _____ get many privileges and concessions
 - ☐ Possibly some slightly out of balance, namely: _____
 - ☐ _____
10. How do you regard the principal as a disciplinarian?
- ☐ Very fair and reasonable
 - ☐ Extremely harsh and unreasonable
 - ☐ Fair but not strict enough
 - ☐ Too reluctant to punish
 - ☐ Prefers counseling and constructive suggestion
 - ☐ Altogether too lenient
 - ☐ Does not regard it as his function
 - ☐ Very effective; always gets improvement
 - ☐ Strings along with severe deviates too long before taking extreme action
 - ☐ Stands by teachers 100 per cent
 - ☐ Does not support teacher's stand with students
 - ☐ Very inconsistent; students never know what to expect
 - ☐ His first aim is to help students
 - ☐ Too friendly with students, should be more aloof
 - ☐ Students respect his judgment and regard him as their friend
 - ☐ _____
11. What do you think of the principal's faculty bulletins?
- ☐ Worthless, I never read them
 - ☐ Too wordy
 - ☐ Tries to accomplish too much with them
 - ☐ Really keeps me informed about school events and problems
 - ☐ Look forward to them, read them with interest
 - ☐ Would like to see weekly calendar to keep us informed
 - ☐ _____

12. How do you regard the principal's practices in making equitable assignments of duty (in and out of classroom)?
- ☐ As fair and equitable as it possibly could be
 - ☐ Teacher's load in this school varies considerably
 - ☐ Policy seems to be "Oil the wheel that squeaks the loudest"
 - ☐ Principal loads the willing ones heavily
 - ☐ I, personally, am overloaded
 - ☐ I, personally, am the heaviest loaded teacher in the school
 - ☐ It would be impossible to devise an absolutely equitable load for everyone
 - ☐ Heaviest loads are paid accordingly and are justifiable
 - ☐ Supervision is inadequate; more assignments are needed in this area
 - ☐ Assignment must depend on the teacher's abilities, his constitution, his temperament, his pay
 - ☐ Teachers should not have supervision duty
13. How do you evaluate the principal's philosophy as it effects long-range planning, curriculum development, and organization?
- ☐ Progressive and forward looking
 - ☐ Principal is well informed and moves ahead carefully and advisedly
 - ☐ A hide-bound traditionalist
 - ☐ Very unwilling to try anything new
 - ☐ Tries too many rash ideas without thorough thought and consideration
 - ☐ Keeps up very well on current educational theory and practice
 - ☐ Very uninformed; no apparent working philosophy
 - ☐ _____
14. Does the principal contribute to good teacher morale?
- ☐ Compliments and encourages when justified
 - ☐ Seems to be very sensitive to teacher morale
 - ☐ Seems to be insensitive to teacher's feelings
 - ☐ Complains too much himself
 - ☐ Finds fault with teachers too much
 - ☐ Is an unprofessional "back-biter"
 - ☐ Encourages teachers in their complaints
 - ☐ Does a good job of appeasing disgruntled teachers and "hurt feelings"
 - ☐ Doesn't keep his word with teachers
 - ☐ Makes too many plans affecting teachers without telling them
 - ☐ _____
15. To what extent does the principal provide professional leadership?
- ☐ Encourages new techniques, helps with new ideas
 - ☐ Encourages experimentation and research

- () Is interested in good teaching, obviously promotes it
- () Does not devote enough attention to this area
- () Is very ineffective
- () Would like to help but doesn't seem to have the skill and know-how
- () Should spend more of his time in this area
- () Is too wrapped up in detail to do a good job in this area
- () _____

16. How does the principal function in helping new teachers?

- () Very effective, new teachers are fully oriented and well informed about procedures
- () Handbook for teachers is very comprehensive and helpful
- () More time should be given in pre-school orientation
- () New teachers are left too much on their own devices
- () Too little supervision on opening day
- () Should spot "trouble spots" earlier
- () _____

17. How does the principal represent the school to the parents and community?

- () Good "publicity man" for the school—sells it well to community
- () Encourages teachers to publicize classroom activities
- () Meets parents well; they believe in the school
- () Handles critical constituents well; diplomatic but direct
- () Very clumsy with parents, offends them often
- () Too wishy-washy with parents; should be more direct
- () Doesn't get enough of school news before the public through press and radio
- () Does not see value of good public relations
- () Strong point, effective all around
- () Tries to do too much himself; needs help
- () Over-emphasizes certain departments—neglects others
- () _____

Problems Related to Programs for Talented and Gifted Students

VERONICA LARSON

A SURVEY of recent professional literature on the education of the gifted and the talented in the secondary schools of our nation has indicated very clearly certain facts:

1. That ability grouping in some form or other has been accepted all over the country.
2. That one of the chief purposes of this grouping has been to give some special attention to the gifted and the academically able, a group too long neglected.
3. That noted programs for the gifted and the talented are now in operation throughout the country.
4. That these programs take many forms depending upon the size, location, etc., of the school and school system involved, some stressing acceleration and association with the Advanced Placement Program, and others stressing enrichment.
5. That most of these programs, in spite of their differences, have in common the fact that they provide special classes for those students who show talent and aptitude in certain fields such as English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and social studies.
6. That there is need for constant evaluation of these programs, and that certain problems have already been singled out as major ones in the successful operation of special classes for the gifted and the academically able.

It is with this final point that the present discussion is concerned. It is the purpose of this article to give a brief summary of (1) the problems the professional literature most frequently mentions and (2) the possible solutions for these problems that have been suggested and are being tried.

At the outset, may we state that the problems herein presented have been selected because of repeated mention of them in descriptions of a wide variety of programs that have been and are now operating throughout the country. Jack Kough in his *Practical Programs for the Gifted* devotes section 3, pages 52-149, to a description of what he calls "Significant Gifted Child Programs." A similar section is found in *Administration: Procedures and School Practices for the Academically Talented in the Secondary School*, a recent publication sponsored jointly by the National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Three other recent publications, sponsored jointly by the National Education Association and the teachers of English, mathematics, and science, deal with the academically talented in those fields

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respectively. From these sources and others we have attempted to select the problems most frequently singled out for further study and research in the successful operation of talented student programs.

In presenting these problems we realize we are over-simplifying when we list them by number with suggested solutions. In reality, it is extremely difficult to separate these problems, since there is considerable inter-relationship, as will be evident as we proceed.

PROBLEM 1

How should students be chosen for admission to special classes for the gifted and the talented? Various criteria are suggested, including: intelligence quotient, achievement tests, differential aptitude tests, teacher recommendation, report card grades, attendance record, health record, anecdotal and other records in student's personal file, in the case of an English class, a sample of the student's writing.

This problem of identification is stressed as a major one that has much to do with the ultimate success of a talented student program. With regard to I.Q., cutoff points are variable, depending upon the local situation and whether the intention of the program is for advanced placement or enrichment only. With regard to report card grades, use of these will be dependent on whether the program is set up to include the bright under-achiever (problem 4), a problem that must be thoroughly aired out by administration and departments or teachers concerned. Stress is placed on careful choice of the students, based on at least *several* of the criteria. Grouping by only one or two criteria is apt to produce inconclusive results. The more careful and thoughtful the consideration given to the matter of choosing the students, to begin with, the fewer problems in adjustment will arise later (problem 6), and the less likelihood there will be that the effectiveness of the whole program will be endangered.

PROBLEM 2

Should students simply be scheduled to these classes by the administration or should consent of students and parents be first obtained? Consent of students and parents is repeatedly mentioned in descriptions of programs. If the program is for "Advanced Placement," consent is particularly important, and both parents and students are asked to sign an official form signifying their understanding of the program and the commitment involved. If the program is for enrichment only, opinion differs, but the consensus is for consent. If students are assigned without their knowledge and consent and that of their parents, there is much more possibility for misunderstanding and consequent problems in adjustment to be ironed out (problem 6). This problem is very closely related with the next one on grading and also with that of counseling and guidance of both students and parents (problem 5). For more complete discussion, see problems 3 and 5. At this point we simply wish to state that most of the literature consulted in this survey mentions this problem as a major one, chiefly because of the problem of grading.

PROBLEM 3

How should students in special classes for the gifted and the talented be graded? Since a student's rank in his class is extremely important for acquiring a scholarship, a job, admission to college, etc., it is natural that both parents and students are concerned that enrollment in a special class will not jeopardize the student's future plans. Students are sometimes reluctant to join a special class because they fear they will not receive an A in the face of stiff competition from peers, whereas in a regular class they could receive A. Parents, too, are hesitant for the same reason. "Parents and pupils need assurance that if a pupil undertakes a more demanding program of studies in good faith, his grade-point average and class standing will not be affected adversely by such an undertaking. Teachers and the school administration must carefully think through what the appropriate standards for grading in a selected group should be."¹ Some solutions that are being tried are:

1. Give no grade below B.
2. If the grade falls below B, return the students to a regular class.
3. Let an A be given for what would be equivalent to an A in a regular class.
4. Equate and weight the grades obtained in these special classes when making the student's final grade-point average.
5. Denote on the student's transcript the fact that a certain grade was made in one of these special classes.
6. Set up some minimum standards for staying in the group.

The problem remains a major obstacle to a workable program for the gifted and the talented, and there is a general agreement that there is need for much research and study.

PROBLEM 4

Should academically talented non-achievers be enrolled in these special classes or should they be reserved for the able achiever only? There is no easy answer to this problem. Some school systems plainly state that their programs are set up for the academically able achiever. They do not wish these classes to be retarded in any way by undue attention to the non-achiever. They claim attention to both cannot be given and an attempt to do so defeats the program. On the other hand, some school systems are very concerned with the able under-achiever, and they maintain that the purpose of the whole talented and gifted student movement is to stimulate the able to reach their maximum potential. The balance of opinion seems to favor the latter group, subject to special reservations as detailed below.

Since there are so many causes for under-achievement, it seems necessary to consider each able non-achiever individually to try to locate

¹ *Mathematics for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1959. P. 21.

the cause or causes of his non-achievement. The cause would help determine whether the student should be given an opportunity in one of the special classes. To determine the cause of non-achievement is indeed difficult, but the attempt should be made by administration, counseling and guidance department, and teachers working together. Some of the possible causes for non-achievement commonly given are:

1. The able student does not realize his own abilities.
2. The able student has no established goal.
3. The able student has a goal not in line with his abilities.
4. The parents of the able student are pushing him toward an unwanted or unsuited goal.
5. The parents of the able student are not interested or at best apathetic in their attitude toward academic achievement.
6. The able student has been stultified in programs that have not been challenging.
7. The student is a chronic absentee, a symbol of something more deep-rooted which needs investigation.
8. The able student is willing and well-motivated but lacks skills and proper background in tool subjects. This has been found to be especially true for boys in the field of English.
9. The able student has not developed good study habits.
10. The able student has a health problem.
11. The able student has a broken home problem, *etc.*
12. The able student does not wish to be labelled an "egghead," but, in reality, he has a far better background than his grades indicate.

It is obvious that the student's counselor can be of assistance in many of the above areas, by interpreting test results to both students and parents in an attempt to show the student his own possibilities. It is also obvious that administration can help: (1) by providing opportunities for remedial work where necessary; (2) by seeing that the community is informed and becomes interested in talented programs; (3) by setting up rewards and publicity for intellectual achievement to help remove the spirit of anti-intellectualism and to make it an honor to be an "egghead." Finally, it is obvious also that the classroom teacher can do a lot by inspirational and "guidance-minded" teaching.

It is conceded that much research is needed in the field of the able non-achiever, but in the meantime let us try the able non-achiever in special classes and evaluate carefully the results. The special class may be exactly what he needs. If not, the program should be flexible enough to allow for adjustments (see problem 6).

PROBLEM 5

What about guidance and counseling for the able student and his parents? We have mentioned the importance of guidance in some of the problems already presented. Let us go into further detail. Perhaps we should begin by saying that the able need guidance, too. "The fact that a student has above average academic ability or special talents placing

him above the average level of school performance by no means indicates that he does not need guidance. Indeed, because of his special nature and the problems often deriving therefrom, he may be in even greater need of guidance services than are many of his average classmates.²² Therefore, part of the broad program for the academically talented is an *enriched* guidance program which cannot be over-emphasized.

What should this *enriched* program do? It should serve a two-fold purpose in that it is directed at both students and parents. It must help not only the under-achiever, but also the able achiever to understand himself and his potential. It should assist him to see his limitations, too. It is also very important that parents be helped to understand both the child's abilities and limitations, his problems as well as his successes. The trend is definitely for guidance personnel to assist parents in these respects.

In the setting up and administering of special classes for the academically able, guidance personnel should play an important part in interpreting the program to both students and parents. They help to insure both student and parental understanding and cooperation in the program by interpreting test results, motivating students to make the best use of their talents, and motivating parents to help their children to do this. Counselors also help with such items as:

1. Requirements for college
2. Which college or what type of college is best
3. Value of attending college
4. Necessity for homework and good study habits
5. Home study conditions
6. Conferences with students and parents if students do not measure up to the expected level of work

To conclude, we should not short-change the able. Administrators should see that counselors have time to counsel the able on the above and other needs, and that the majority of the counselor's time is not spent on purely administrative and clerical jobs like attendance, tardiness, etc. The literature consulted in this survey constantly reiterates this great need.

PROBLEM 6

What provisions should be made for flexibility and adjustment in programs for the academically talented? The descriptions of the many talented student programs stress the need for constant evaluation and flexibility. As one source put it, "Pupils should not be removed for light reasons, but neither should they be compelled to stay with the group after it becomes clear they are being pushed beyond their ability."²³ If

²² *Administration: Procedures and School Practices for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1960. P. 95.

²³ *Mathematics for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School*, op. cit., p. 20.

a student cannot work up to the level of the special group, he should find it possible to transfer. If he can do the work but does not, the problem is more complex, particularly if the school program is set up to try to encourage the able under-achiever. Cases must be handled carefully on an individual basis. The question of whether or not student and parental consent was obtained in the first place would also have a bearing.

Just as the program should be flexible enough to transfer out, it should also be possible to allow a late bloomer to transfer into the class.

One other problem that might be considered here is that of overloading a student with special classes, since normally a student does not show academic ability in all fields. Care must be exercised in this regard in order to insure the student's enrollment in an average class in any field in which his ability is merely average.

PROBLEM 7

To what teachers should special classes for the gifted and the academically able be assigned? The answer to this question depends on many factors such as the size of the school, the number of teachers in the department available for the assignment, their willingness to undertake it, etc. Some sources claim that the teachers of the gifted and the academically able should be talented, too. Others claim these teachers need not be gifted, but that they should simply possess at least a good number of the qualities any teacher should have. Among most important criteria for choice of the teacher are the following:

1. The teacher should understand the talented student program and be interested in it.
2. He should be willing to undertake it—which implies previous consent.
3. He should be able to stimulate and motivate students to do their best.
4. He should be willing to do the extra research, study, and planning needed in teaching such groups.
5. He should be tolerant and willing to admit at times that the student's knowledge on a certain topic may be superior to his own.
6. He should be able to handle such situations honestly and tactfully and gain the respect of the class by so doing.
7. He should work with superiors and seek help when needed.
8. He should be adaptable, since this type of course will offer new problems in motivation, methods, procedures, grading, etc., not met in a regular, average classroom set-up.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, may we reiterate the need for evaluation of programs as they develop, as well as the need for administration, guidance personnel, and classroom teachers to work together in tackling problems and making adjustments to insure an increasingly successful program for the gifted and the academically talented.

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The Care and Treatment of First-Year Teachers

JOSEPH M. CRONIN

EVERY school has first-year teachers. Few American schools have exactly the same staff two years in a row. New schools, expanding schools, and even old schools in growth areas face the problems of recruiting, selecting, inducting, and orienting new teachers each year. They may or may not be inexperienced, but their "newness" to a school and to a locale makes this a worthy challenge for the school administrator.

Teacher "A" has taught for several years in an elementary school in the same community, but is now prepared to teach secondary-level biology. She knows the community, is respected by many parents, knows many children and their families far better than many of the counselors would. Yet her transition from one type of school, from one curriculum organization, from one social group to another will be a demanding and perhaps hazardous step. That first year she will need a special kind of support.

Teacher "B" is extremely bright, but right out of teacher training and apprentice-teaching environments. He has high expectations of the school, the children, his colleagues. He is single, only vaguely familiar with the local situation, and is undecided about his future in public education. This young man is a frequent casualty to the profession. Dismayed by students' shortcomings, disillusioned by less conscientious workers down the hall, this "boy" may decide to leave teaching after a short but superb stay, especially as he considers marriage and its finance. He needs a special kind of sympathy, encouragement, and praise his first year.

Teacher "C" is an experienced English teacher from another state. He brings a family of three to an entirely new locale. Neither he nor his wife have any ties or friends in the new community. Not so much subject matter assistance or information about techniques as much as friendships for him and his family may make his morale and efficiency soar.

But a principal could over-categorize these persons into types of "needs" or problems. It could be that Teacher "A" will need the friendships most, or that either "B" or "C" will need substantial work with a department head or principal before they apply their talents efficiently to the school's unique curriculum.

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It would seem that no one blanket program of "orientation" will solve the needs of all the individuals needing it. Even while retaining the very useful practise of saving one or two days before school opens for the basic orientation of new teachers, principals might pay more attention to the special needs of individuals. School principals typically grind out reams of written explanation of policies, procedures, standards, and schedules. They and their assistants may spend hours at orientation meetings talking at the neophytes and answering their questions. A few principals intuitively perceive the need to tailor these programs to the special needs, but the trend seems to be toward more formal, organized programs.

PERSONAL FACTORS IN HELPING PERSONNEL

Perhaps a principal might prepare some worksheets prior to the new person's arrival at the school. He should know the answers to these questions:

1. How much orientation does he need to the school system and its philosophy, to the school—its staff and its workings?
2. Does he know the community, its social structure, geography, facilities for housing, recreation, and worship?
3. How much work with this person will be needed before the specific teaching assignment is thoroughly understood? Who can best help this person to fill gaps in training and experience? Can more than one person help?
4. What persons outside of school rely or depend on this teacher? Are there ways to make these persons more comfortable or appreciative of the teacher's position and opportunity?
5. How can the school help to make this individual develop into an excellent and creative person? What guidance, which types of in-service training, what opportunities can be made available to him?

The principal's assistants and department heads should have this information, too. Then the orientation program itself should leave blocks of time open for the teacher not only to work in the classroom and prepare materials, but also to confer individually with those whose help he might need.

EXTRA DUST FOR NEW BROOMS

One of the most paradoxical questions remains untouched by most authorities; that is, the course load of new teachers. One lamentable practise to be abhorred is the assignment of new teachers to "tough" classes or oversized classes the very first year. Akin to this is the unfortunate truth that he who is already at the school gets the prize classes, the newcomer gets the subjects or tracks or classes that others shun. This situation is usually remedied after the first year, but the first year's difficulties are compounded by uncharitable assignment practises.

It is becoming increasingly hard to defend the notion that mature, experienced teachers should be released one or two classes a day for research, coaching, and administrative work, while new teachers shoulder

the full load. Fortunately, the full load for many teachers has been reduced from seven or six classes to five, and some systems have found ways to reduce the English teacher's load to four classes so that more themes can be assigned. But an amazing number of "extra duties" have been awarded the dignity of released time from the full teaching load of the experienced classroom teacher. The counselor seems most deserving, then comes the department head and the coach—all of these have time-consuming chores. The yearbook adviser, the audio-visual coordinator, the publicity chairman, the magazine drive leader, the student activities director, *etc.*—all warrant a lightened load at some schools in various parts of our land.

A college or university hires administrative specialists to perform some of these chores, frequently paying them much less than the best teachers receive. The best universities expect their best teachers to teach more, not fewer students, at least in introductory courses, and allow the new instructor to practise the arts of teaching on much smaller groups at first. The American high school, however, may borrow the expert teacher for less noble tasks. The end result of these practices is that the school as a whole probably benefits from these non-teaching services, but that children get less of the best possible teaching.

It may be that first-year teachers should be assigned as few as three classes the first year or semester and gradually work into a full load. It may be that "team teaching" will inaugurate a hierarchy of assistants to the master teacher, with new teachers serving as section teachers or leaders of very small groups at first. We ought to spread good teaching and nurture the beginner, the teaching intern, the future master at education.

This is a profession where human relationships are the very essence of the services rendered. Certainly, assistance to new teachers and the handling of beginning teachers are never tasks to be taken for granted nor are they problems soluble through a routine, standard program.

Student Teaching Can Be a Worth-While Experience

BEN H. HORTON, JR.

WHEN student teachers are asked to evaluate their program of preparation, they almost invariably applaud the internship in student teaching as the most valuable single experience in the entire program. Most of them consider formal college courses a vital necessity in the preparation program, but they conclude with the opinion that only through actual teaching experience can the prospective teacher fully realize the challenges and the responsibilities of teaching. Through some of their direct reactions to this experience, further emphasis can be observed in favor of this contention. For example, one student teacher had this to say:

Student teaching has provided me the most profitable, the most satisfying experience of my entire college career.

Another one said:

From my student teaching I not only learned what made teenagers tick, but also received a new insight into my own life as a teacher. For the first time I realized the importance of the teacher in our democratic society. I had read in education and psychology books about how teachers guided young minds; but not until I, myself, had experience in this did I realize the full impact of this statement. For instance, I observed quite early that not one of these youngsters was alike: one boy, hanging out of his desk, was tall, obese, and awkward; but he had a "million dollar" smile; one had red hair and freckles, and a twinkle was always present in his eyes; one girl was tall and slim, the magazine-cover type.

At first I was confused because they were different, but gradually I learned more about them and understood them better. There was Don, the young fellow who wanted to become an engineer but was not financially able to attend college; Jane, the attractive girl who was incapable of making "A's" but was constantly driven by her parents; and Butch, who was forever playing a joke on the teacher.

At this point, instead of being frightened and confused, I was challenged and inspired but frequently disappointed; surely every resource within me was stirred because there were those who wanted to be understood, who needed and deserved recognition.

Another student teacher expressed it this way:

I've found that merely teaching doesn't make one a teacher. She must be a mother to some, a counselor to some, and a policeman to others; she must

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be friendly but firm and impartial to all. While becoming a teacher, I have also been a student; you see, my pupils proved to me that no one can teach someone who doesn't want to learn; first, a teacher must create a desire to learn.

A situation involving a very quiet, retarded child (with whom I spent much time) expressed it this way on my last day of student teaching: "When you're gone, I just don't know what I'm gonna do." I didn't teach Sid to read or spell, but I helped him to dare to express himself. This was my reward. Thus, I found that, through my efforts and willingness to learn, I could some day become an effective teacher.

QUALITY EXPERIENCES

It has been frequently said by writers and educators that student teaching is a culmination of all preparatory experiences—the heart beat of the entire preparation program. To be sure, student teaching provides opportunities to test strengths and weaknesses of prospective teachers and to evaluate programs of preparation. It provides an experience whereby student teachers can identify themselves in the role of the teacher, or declare their intentions to pursue other interests. It is a time when theories of learning can be tested and empirical knowledge selected as usable and functional or refused because of its inappropriateness.

Student teaching awakens deeper and keener insights in the individual, thus giving significance and direction for the formal aspects of the preparation program. This advantage of the experience could easily account for a greater degree of confidence and courage in the individual and ultimately a richer personality and a stronger character.

Student teaching provides an excellent opportunity for students to become better acquainted with growing boys and girls. Prior to this time, they have read about them, discussed them, observed them, lived among them and with them; and, yet, their lack of ability to communicate with boys and girls would indicate a need for personal involvement as a part of the role of the teacher. For instance, it is one thing to read about the characteristics and needs of a child, and another thing to convert the child's potential into significantly satisfying experiences. It is one thing to discuss economic destitution and yet another to accept and appreciate a life that is empty, starved, and indifferent.

Student teaching is an experience that enables the individual to become acquainted with and to appreciate more fully the importance and necessity of supervisory personnel. In order to accomplish this goal, good working relationships must be established; and a full clarification of duties, responsibilities, and hoped-for outcomes must be made. These conditions must be created, lest we lose the team approach to the accomplishment of common goals. Thus, well chosen supervising teachers will create an atmosphere in which the student teacher will seek help and advice, learn the act and necessity for self-appraisal, cultivate respect for peers and superiors, dare to experiment and accept the consequences if "failure" accrues, develop an appreciation for the total school pro-

gram, thrive on periods of success and adjust gracefully to experiences that are unpleasant, and share the relationship as a professional equal among the school personnel. Such an experience could involve both the student teacher and the supervising teacher in a wholesome learning situation. Exchanging ideas, giving and receiving suggestions, and striving to "please" and live up to expectations could easily create a situation in which all would grow and improve. Perhaps, under these conditions, supervision could be found at its best.

The extent to which the quality of these experiences is made genuine will be reflected in the attitude and behavior of the student teachers. If they have found teaching to be challenging and satisfying; if they have developed maturity, poise, and confidence; if they have learned to observe and analyze pupils carefully and to plan work and activities accordingly; if they have learned the importance of positive thinking; if they have found justification for the total school program; if they have grown stronger in their convictions about universal education and the part teachers play in protecting our democratic way of life; if they have become cognizant of certain pressures, limitations, and movements in communities to resist progress in education; and if they have learned to "keep a level head" when teachers of experience assail the profession in conversation and disregard in their behavior the existence of the code of ethics, we can label the experiences as genuine and worth while.

PROVIDING QUALITY EXPERIENCES

The quality of student teaching experiences depends upon a number of factors. The first of these is readiness and preparation to teach. If the student is preparing to teach English, for instance, he will need to know thoroughly the subject matter in his field essential to the development of boys and girls. It is most essential, also, that the English teacher have general knowledge in mathematics, personal health, science, social science, and the fine arts. This preparation would not be complete without knowledge of the psychological and physiological growth and development of human beings, sociological relationships, curriculum development, and techniques of learning.

Another factor necessary to the attainment of quality experiences in student teaching is the wise and careful selection of cooperating schools. The ideal school bears the trademark of accreditation. This trademark becomes superficial, however, unless there is adequate information about the attitude of school personnel toward instruction, the availability and utilization of instructional materials, student-faculty relationships, school-community relationships, quality of administrative leadership, and, ultimately, the attitude of school and community toward the student teaching program.

Closely allied with this factor is the selection of the supervising teacher. The supervising teacher has been presented as the key to the success of the student teaching program. Thus, the importance of the

role of the supervising teacher would suggest that selection be made in terms of an established criteria. Essentially, the person should hold the basic, undergraduate degree, and should be employed in the field in which he holds a certificate. The supervising teacher should have had a minimum of three years of successful teaching, one of which has been in the school where he is now employed. His experience should reflect rich and wholesome relationships with students, faculty, administration, and community, and also an extensive use of teaching techniques and materials. He should be selected on the basis of cooperative attitude and a willingness to share experiences and to permit the exploration and innovation of new ideas.

More and better qualified supervising teachers are needed yearly. During the years immediately ahead, a minimum of 15,000 new, competent supervising teachers will be needed per year. This fact is significant. If good supervising teachers are to become better; and if additional ones are to be made available, the colleges and universities must seize every opportunity to select and prepare them for this responsibility.

Further evidence of this contention is found in the words of a contemporary writer who said, "In the continuing struggle to make teaching a true profession, one of the most promising developments is the increased recognition of the responsibility of members of the profession for the education of those who are entering it. No longer is the preparation of teachers considered the exclusive responsibility of colleges." A similar view was expressed by a public school principal who said, "The training of those who are to help us now and replace us when we are gone is a responsibility which should be shared by everyone interested in the welfare of our youth."

If the institutions that prepare teachers are to realize the significance and value of student teaching in the pre-service preparation, programs must be carefully and thoroughly planned, supervised, and coordinated. College supervisors must be well qualified and respected by college and public school personnel and their work load must be held within reasonable limits.

Thus, it becomes reasonable to assume that high quality experiences will accrue when conditions are conducive to growth and development, while experiences of inferior quality will result when conditions are unfavorable. The implementation of devices and techniques to make this distinction is one of our greatest challenges.

A Survey of Student Teacher Effectiveness

KENNETH H. HOOVER, LAUREL BOETTO,
and ROY P. DOYLE

IN THE teacher training institutions of Arizona frequent criticisms and suggestions are offered for the improvement of teacher preparation programs. For the most part, such comments are made on the basis of the specialized interests of those involved. Nevertheless, the charges and counter-charges which follow are printed and broadcast often enough to create considerable confusion among those interested in effective training of teachers.

Let us eliminate certain professional education courses. The 45-semester hour requirement for specialization in a major field is inadequate. Subject matter (content) background is all that is really needed.

Our students need more training in theory and fewer techniques courses. They go out with a "bag of tricks."

Your beginning teachers hear a lot of advanced theory about controlling students, but they are unable to cope with practical classroom behavior problems.

Some of your student teachers are not mentally equipped for teaching. What you need is a rigorous screening program.

In an effort to determine actual teacher preparation needs, the Research Committee of the Arizona Association for Student Teaching asked the supervising teachers of Arizona to evaluate their student teachers for the spring semester of 1959-60. Approximately 350 supervising teachers were assisting in the program. Each was asked to respond to a survey form on the basis of his *current* student teacher. It is estimated that about 60 per cent of the supervising teachers actually contacted responded to the survey questionnaire.

A total of nineteen different areas were identified for investigation, as indicated in Table I. The supervisor was asked to respond to each item on a five-point scale: almost always, usually, undecided, sometimes, seldom. He was encouraged to make additional comments on the back of his answer sheet.

As indicated in Table I, there were several areas of strength, along with a few areas of apparent weakness. Many areas of common criticism apparently rated quite high on the basis of supervising teacher ratings. The problem of discipline, for example, is often ranked among the greatest difficulties of beginning teachers. In this survey 85 per cent of the respondents indicated that their student teachers were almost always

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TABLE I. Supervising Teachers' Evaluation of Arizona Student Teacher Effectiveness, Spring 1959-60

Area	Percentage				
	<i>Almost always</i>	<i>Usually</i>	<i>Un- decided</i>	<i>Some- times</i>	<i>Seldom</i>
1. Does the student teacher plan adequately for classroom experiences?	54	36	3	4	3
2. Does your student teacher utilize modern teaching methods effectively?	30	58	4	5	3
3. Does your present student teacher provide adequately for individual differences?	27	44	11	14	4
4. Is your student teacher able to control the behavior (discipline) of students?	36	49	1	9	5
5. Does your student teacher meet class responsibilities on time?	64	27	1	6	2
6. Does your student teacher prepare adequate measuring and evaluation instruments? (Tests, rating scales, check lists, and the like)	37	37	11	6	9
7. Is your student teacher able to evaluate students adequately? (Interpretation of test scores, grades, report cards, and so on)	35	51	9	2	3
8. Does your student teacher cooperate with you?	85	12	0	1	2
9. Is your student teacher willing to do more than minimum requirements?	68	18	0	6	8
10. Does your student teacher attend extraclass social and professional functions? (Clubs, sports, PTA, faculty meetings, and the like)	26	23	0	20	31
11. Does your student teacher demonstrate a belief in the basic tenet of public education in this country—"that every child has a right to an education, commensurate with his abilities, through high school"?	77	12	8	2	1
12. Does your student teacher seem ethical in his relationships with faculty and students?	75	22	1	2	0
13. Is your student teacher able to motivate students to a high level of performance in a desirable manner?	16	52	15	13	4
14. Does your student teacher demonstrate adequate performance in the basic writing skills? (Penmanship, spelling, grammar, and the like)	39	38	6	12	5
15. Does your student teacher demonstrate facility in oral communication? (Both in and out of the classroom)	44	39	4	10	3
16. Is your student teacher able to organize and direct study activities?	35	51	6	6	2
17. Does this student teacher seem to possess an adequate subject matter (content) background?	50	32	5	8	5
18. In terms of operational behavior, does the student teacher seem to possess the mental capacity (IQ) normally expected of a teacher?	68	25	2	4	1
19. Does your student teacher demonstrate that he has received an adequate, liberal (well-rounded) education?	55	29	6	6	4

or usually able to control their students, while only 14 per cent indicated a weakness in the area. A substantial portion of the respondents (82 per cent) thought the student teachers were well qualified in terms of a subject matter background, while 13 per cent indicated a definite need for stronger subject matter preparation. A number of factors were rated as strong by at least 90 per cent of the respondents. Among these were co-operation, ethical relationships, classroom planning, mental capacity and meeting class responsibilities on time.

Of the areas needing attention one stood out among all the others. More than one half (51 per cent) of the supervising teachers indicated student teacher weakness in extraclass participation and attendance. On the basis of this survey, it would seem that some group (perhaps college supervisors) might assume responsibility for correcting such a weakness. It is entirely possible, however, that the problem might be one of defining the appropriate roles of student teachers in the area. Another factor which appeared to need attention was motivation. Although only 17 per cent viewed student teachers as being deficient in the area, just 68 per cent thought of them as being fully capable of motivating students to a high level of performance. It seems possible that more intensive or specific assistance in motivation techniques may be needed in such classes as teaching methods, principles, and educational psychology. Three other areas were appreciably lower than the remaining 14 areas surveyed. They were: provision for individual differences, preparation of measurement and evaluation instruments, and performance in basic writing skills. Approximately two thirds of the respondents who elected to make additional comments were concerned with the written and spoken communication abilities of their student teachers.

One of the interesting findings of this survey was that four of the five areas of greatest need were related to professional preparation. Only one of these areas (basic writing skills) was related to academic preparation. This would suggest that the colleges of education might either add additional courses or strengthen the ones they now offer. There is some indication that the English department might add or strengthen work in basic communication skills, especially in basic grammar.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A survey of the effectiveness of student teaching in Arizona was conducted during the spring semester of 1959-60. Supervising teachers were asked to respond to a questionnaire designed to identify areas of relative strength and weakness. About 60 per cent of the supervising teachers contacted participated in the survey. The findings seem to warrant a number of generalizations.

1. Supervising teachers generally were satisfied with their student teachers. Fourteen of the 19 areas investigated were checked as usually or almost always present in adequate amounts.

2. In only five areas did as many as twenty per cent of the respondents indicate inadequacy.

3. On the basis of free responses, the respondents seemed to be most strongly concerned about an apparent inadequacy of writing and speaking skills.

The survey did not reveal the specific nature of existing problems. It did, however, effectively identify *areas* of weakness in the present teacher training programs, as it applied to the students surveyed. There was some evidence that areas of common criticism were not the areas representative of greatest need.

One of the problems involved in such an investigation is that of determining just *what standards of excellence can be expected*. While it is perhaps appropriate to direct attention to areas of *greatest need*, *all* areas need continued attention. To the question, "Does your student teacher cooperate with you?" 97 per cent responded in the affirmative. Yet three per cent of the group reported that their student teachers *sometimes* or *seldom* cooperated with them. Although the over-all rating may be "high," the few who *seldom cooperate* should probably be identified for future employers. Such a procedure would seem to be desirable for other factors important to success in teaching. It seems likely that some scaling instrument might be made a part of the student's official papers.

There are at least three other groups who usually participate in the training and evaluation of student teachers. College supervisors, school administrators, and student teachers themselves are all directly or indirectly involved in the experience. It would seem that a systematic evaluation of student teachers should also involve these groups. This survey, however, may serve as a useful guide in pin-pointing potential problems.

An Administrative Guide on Employment Procedures

CHARLES F. LOEDEL

DURING the past decade, we have seen many changes in our educational system. Not only have there been many changes, but there have been revisions in our values and concepts. Suddenly education has come into the spotlight—not only in importance, but also in physical enlargement. The spurt in the population following World War II has started to invade the schools. This ignited our first chain of growing pains and first school constructions. However, the full impact of this was not felt so drastically until these students entered the junior high school. Then we were confronted with classroom shortage on that level and as we looked yet farther, we could see that the senior high schools would not adequately facilitate this moving army of students.

The physical facilities necessary to accommodate this influx of students was only one phase of the whole problem. Another phase was the sudden realization that we did not have enough qualified instructors to teach this expanding group. We awoke to the fact that the salaries of teachers were not sufficient to entice people to the teaching profession. This report is designed to offer suggestions as to the procedure school administrators could use in recruiting and selecting teachers.

As has been stated, the actual need for professional type recruitment and selection of teachers did not commence until the shortage of teachers became evident in the past decade. Previously the supply and demand had been in balance, in fact probably the supply was greater than the demand, creating a buyer's market. To some administrators this gave them an independent feeling and they could act independently when they were filling their teaching vacancies. However, many of these same administrators could not adjust their ways in the sudden seller's market and, consequently, they were faced with the serious problem of a shortage of competent teachers to staff their new classrooms. True, there has been a slight change in the supply and demand situation, with the gap becoming narrower. Our colleges are turning out more teachers and more people are entering the teaching field from other fields. Yet, there continues to be a shortage in many areas and there will continue to be for those who do not utilize the modern methods of recruitment. We are competing with industry in a modern twentieth century. We must do a better job than the industrial specialists or we will have to rationalize

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our shortages by deploring, "There is just a shortage of teachers." I will discuss the topics of recruitment, interview, selection, and notification. The administrator who uses his ingenuity and some of the suggestions incorporated herein will undoubtedly find that an understaffed, mis-staffed, and undesirable teaching climate will befall only those who have not intriguingly heeded the ancient quotation, "Seek and ye shall find."

WAYS TO RECRUIT TEACHERS

Let us first consider the problem of recruitment. As indicated previously, we are in a seller's market. The graduate of the teachers college or whoever you are approaching is being sought by others than yourself. Recruitment therefore is now a selling task on the part of the administrator. This may be difficult to believe, yet it is true—you are selling yourself, your school, your education program, and your community to these prospective teachers. Recruitment is not just a process of picking candidates, but is a process of selling and doing it so effectively that the candidate will select you. Therefore, when recruitment is being done, go prepared to sell. An effective tool to take with you would be your annuals, school papers, pictures, or a brochure that you may have made that describes, in words and pictures, your school system.

Before we can conduct an interview, we have to have applicants. The administrator who does not pursue every possible avenue of prospects and even dream of new ways is going to be very sullen in regards to his employment situation. Some of the possible ways to locate candidates are:

Advertising

Any person who has an advertising allowance will find that this can be an effective media. It is recommended that you do not advertise for teachers in local newspapers, but use teacher association publications and magazines that reach teachers through textbook publishers. As a last resort, local advertising may be done provided it is directed to induce former teachers to return to active teaching. Many times teachers resign for marital or maternity reasons and could be convinced that it would be expedient for them to return to teaching.

College Recruitment

The placement directors of colleges are desirous of their graduates obtaining employment in the most satisfactory locations. In the event your school is located near a college, make it your business to invite the placement director to your school to see your facilities, staff, students, and community. Sell him on the idea that your school is a good place to work. If these men have busy schedules and cannot visit you for this purpose, invite them to your school as a guest speaker at a special occasion such as National Education Week, Teacher Recognition Day, Career Day, or any other reason of which you can think. Many times you can offer an honorarium for these occasions. Advance notice of this fact will get him to find time for you. Make sure he is thoroughly sold on your school and

has a full stomach when he leaves. Rapport can also be established with these nearby colleges by cooperating in their cadet teaching programs.

Cadet Teachers

If your school can participate in cadet teaching programs, you have an excellent opportunity not only to observe the quality of teaching of the cadets, but also to conduct a selling program on them by expounding the merits of teaching in your system. In the event you cannot place them when they start their teaching, it is advisable to keep in touch with them. This can be done by sending them copies of the school newspaper, annual, or having the class, staff, or you write newsy letters. Then in the event you have positions available at a later date, you can approach them on the idea of joining your system. Here again, good rapport with the director of cadet teaching may enable you to get the pick of his cadets for your school.

Agencies

There are many employment agencies that specialize in teaching personnel. Actually you have nothing to lose by registering your vacancies with them. Here again good rapport with the directors of these agencies can aid you in the caliber of referrals made to you. Another agency that is frequently overlooked, yet I feel is extremely useful, is the state employment service or similar agency. It is advisable to visit them and get acquainted with the various services they render.

Other Administrators

During your various meetings with other administrators, you have an opportunity to discuss your employment problems either individually or in a group. You can share any excess applications that you do not need as possibilities for the needs of other schools.

Applications

During the course of the year you will have teachers, former teachers, and perhaps others inquire as to vacancies on your staff. Have them complete an application form whether or not you anticipate any vacancies. If you do not have any vacancies when they approach you, tell them so; but state that you would like them to leave an application with you. State that you oftentimes have changes in your plans and would welcome an opportunity to discuss these positions with them when the vacancies occur. Don't be blunt with the applicant as you may need just that type of person a lot sooner than you think.

Substitute Teachers

Many times people do substitute teaching because they cannot be tied down every day due to home responsibilities. However, after a few years, these impending requirements become lessened to the extent that other arrangements can be made to facilitate full-time teaching. This area should be explored completely. Perhaps through counseling with these substitutes and former substitutes, you can effect the change to mutual satisfaction.

Present Staff

It is advisable to let your staff know of any anticipated vacancies either during faculty meetings, notices, or any other suitable media. They in turn can be recruiters for you and make referrals whenever the occasion arises.

Former Alumni

A good source of supply is to keep a record of all your outstanding graduates who go on to teacher preparation institutions. Keep them in touch with your school through school papers, clippings, letters, and other devices you think of. These people would no doubt like to do their cadet teaching at home. This, generally, can be arranged rather easily. This offers an excellent opportunity to view at close range those who attend institutions far away. In most cases, arrangements can be made for this to be done if the director of cadet teaching is approached on the idea. You then can have an excellent opportunity to try to employ these home-town people firsthand.

Your Own Public Relations

Whenever you get an opportunity, you should expound on the advantages of teaching as a career. This can take place when you are invited to speak at a meeting, club, PTA, and other groups. Then too you can voice your opinions on this area when you write articles in the local newspaper or other publications. This has become effective as evidenced by the conversion of persons to the teaching profession from other fields. For those who possess at least a baccalaureate degree and determination, it is relatively easy to work out a plan for them to enter the teaching profession. If you attempt to convince these people to change professions, you may find that they will come to you for advice on how it can be done. Some of them may be of the caliber that you need to fill your needs.

PLANNING THE INTERVIEW

The interview is valued very highly by many people and occupies lesser stature by others. It is imperative under most conditions and warrants concerted planning on the part of the administrator. Every applicant deserves an interview. Of course when you do not have any positions to fill, you will not expend too much time on the interview, yet enough to obtain a few impressions and extend courtesy to the applicant. If you are recruiting, it is advisable to make an appointment for the interview. If you are interviewing college students on their campus or candidates for your positions at an agency, a definite preplanned schedule must be arranged with the director. It is imperative that you be prompt in meeting these commitments and to keep on schedule. If the interview is at your office a prearranged time is usually effected by your secretary.

You should command and direct the interview. A good way of opening an interview is to discuss various topics on the application form or data sheet. Let the applicant tell you again many of the things listed that would be of utility to you in evaluating her. Not only should you learn

about the applicant, but you should also tell what your position entails and sell your school to her. Bear in-mind that salary is not going to be the only criteria that she will use in evaluating the district that she chooses. You should stress the other advantages of your system, such as facilities, hours, meetings required, extra duties required, social functions of the staff, class size, average I.Q. of the student body, percentage attending institutions of higher learning, the tax structure, teaching aids, and prestige of teachers, along with other topics you can think of. Whenever possible, make sure that all desirable applicants visit your facilities and meet some staff members, department head, principals, and others of importance. If the interview is conducted off campus make a definite appointment for a visit to your school in the very near future. The actual firsthand visit to see your school, community, stores, areas of recreation, churches, and living accommodations should assist you in your selling program. To assist you with the visit, you might solicit the services of prominent citizens such as businessmen, clergy, PTA officers and members. Upon the completion of the interview you must:

- a. Make sure you have given the applicant complete information regarding the position and community in an effective manner.
- b. Make sure that you have received as much information as possible about the applicant.
- c. Received consent to observe her in a teaching situation if this can be arranged. This should only be done with applicants who are in college and doing cadeting or practice teaching. Usually the arrangements for this can be done without too much difficulty.
- d. Make sure the applicant has been introduced to those on your staff who would be interested in her. However, the absurd practice of having the applicant interviewed by the board of education should be eliminated.
- e. Make a definite time for a decision on both her part and yours. If you feel the answer is no, tell her right there in a tactful manner. If you feel that you would not employ her under any conditions or feel that she is not qualified for the position, you should let her know that she is not to consider your school as a possible employer. Instead of saying, "We aren't interested," you should thank her for her time and courtesy extended you in the interview. Tell her that although her background and experience is good, it is not exactly what you need, or that other applicants meet your requirements better. Say, "I know you would want me to be perfectly honest with you." By being frank now, it will enable her to make other plans and take advantage of other employment possibilities.

If a candidate has been eliminated from your list of finalists, you should advise her immediately in writing, even though this date supersedes the date you agreed upon at the close of your interview. This lets the candidate know that she cannot plan on your school and will continue to look

elsewhere. If you needlessly keep her waiting, she may miss out on some other positions.

If you find that you cannot make a definite decision on the date agreed upon with the candidate, you must write and advise her of the situation and give another date in which to expect a reply. Neglecting to do this can create many hardships for the applicant.

Only under exceptional circumstances will you employ the applicant before she leaves the interview. This might occur in college recruitment if you, beforehand, had an opportunity to evaluate the applicant's college records and reports provided by the placement bureau. It is considered better practice to keep the interview open on your part. An easy method to close an interview is "I certainly appreciate this opportunity to discuss our sixth-grade position with you. In all fairness to the other applicants I have planned to interview, I will withhold my final decision until I have interviewed them. Would April 6 be a satisfactory date to advise you of my decision?"

AIDS TO USE IN THE INTERVIEW

You have many tools at your disposal to guide you in making your selection. Some administrators claim to be able to judge a person just through the interview. Experience gives you an extra sense in this matter and you can rely heavily upon this judgment, provided you do enough of this type of work to develop this sense.

College Records

For the recent graduate, this should definitely give you an indication whether or not the applicant meets your academic requirements. The smaller colleges may also have an evaluation record made by the instructors regarding personality traits which are very important to the teaching profession. Then too, the activities engaged in both extracurricular and employment are indicators to be perused.

Cadet Teaching Reports

The reports made by sponsoring teachers usually give much valuable information regarding the applicant. After observing a cadet for six to eight weeks, an experienced instructor should be able to give a valid appraisal of the cadet and make valid predictions for her future.

Former Employers

If the applicant has been previously employed as a teacher, you should definitely contact her former administrator for an evaluation not only of her teaching ability, but also attendance, co-operativeness, physical condition, reason for leaving, and any other important factors deemed necessary for an evaluation. If the applicant has not had any prior teaching experience but has worked in other capacities, these employers should also be contacted in order to obtain her history of proficiency, attendance, attitude and co-operativeness, and reason for leaving. If the

applicant has not had previous employment you will have to rely extensively on her college records and the interview.

Present Employer

If the applicant has given notice of her intention of severing employment with her present employer, you may wish to observe her teaching. However, if the applicant has not severed employment, but is just "shopping around" for greener pastures, you should not request an opportunity to observe her in her own school. This could create great repercussions for the applicant in the event you did not select her and would actually discourage people applying for positions in your school.

INFORMING THE APPLICANT

The last area of this report concerns notification. Good employment practices mandate notification of your decisions to all applicants. Many administrators neglect this simple act of courtesy which makes applicants uncertain as to whether they should continue to look for employment or sweat it out a little longer and hope that you will accept them. A letter does not take long to produce, yet it can mean much to the applicant in making her future plans and also mean much to you in public relations—you may desire to employ the candidate at a later date. You cannot afford to be porky or independent when dealing with people. If you do not turn them into an employee, turn them into a friend—not an enemy.

The Many Fallacies of Timeocentry

JAMES W. RUSSELL

ISOLATIONISM, provincialism, and ethnocentricity are taboo today. Doing lip service against these recognized evils and actually keeping them out of behavior are two different things. They creep into our problem solving somehow. Even more serious, yet unrecognized and operating in a very subtle manner, is timeocentry.

THE IMPRESSIONS OF A PERIOD OF TIME

A man in his forties exclaimed with exasperation that he could not hope really to understand today's world. He was raised in the pre-World War II period when things were, he feels, utterly different. In other words, because of the deep impression made on him by the things that were going on in those days, he is unable to adapt to things as they are now.

Change does not take place with great rapidity. The explosion of knowledge accelerates and political changes come constantly. New nations are being formed. Old ones change in their relative position in comparison to others. Even in the home and classroom, things are going on that have a staggering impact on the individual. The application of the world reality of one period to the next can involve a strong disposition and danger of fallacious thinking. The adaptability of the individual is challenged. Middle-age complacency is obsolete.

Existing trends of thought in the culture as a whole, or among some segments of it, may dispose the individual to these fallacies. The dependence of the individual on the over-all trends is often demonstrated in a spectacular manner. In many instances, the entire population will go right along with the policies of the leadership minority. In a Latin American country, a movement may be whipped up by a small minority; the majority may seem to follow like sheep. Actually, even if the pendulum swings less far in our country, it, all too often, swings quite far enough. Here, like elsewhere, people go right along with the fad or "bandwagon."

In education, for instance, leadership can often have its way with a major part of the profession. The popularity of "life-adjustment education," or "core curriculum," may vary according to the way in which it is sold by educational leaders. If things start to go in another direction, the majority tends to go right along.

This tendency to follow fads pertains, of course, to many areas of life. Even so, in education, the way in which controversy is resolved has some-

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thing to do with this sheep-like behavior. The source of ideas, the way in which they are weighed and analyzed, in addition to life cycle tendencies, contribute constantly to this timeocentry.

THE PREVENTION AND CURE OF TIMEOCENTRY

How can an educational administrator avoid guiding his behavior by the thinking of the past which may dispose him to inappropriate and out-of-date reasoning and action? Certainly, it pertains to a level of functioning and way of life. No doubt, the application of that ambiguous something referred to as the "scientific method" will help. In addition to the application of these two general principles, it may also help to employ techniques of communication and organization to lessen the chances that distorting influences of this kind will be permitted to operate with or without being recognized.

Simply meeting individually or in groups with personnel and faculty people to talk over issues and problems may help. By doing this, it may be possible for an airing out process to take place that will bring this type of influence out into the daylight where it will be easily recognized for what it is.

Although meeting with others will help, it can be just as important to turn to the literature. This could involve reading the great books or the latest issue of a professional journal. The courageous use of searching literary scholarship, along with thinking things through as far as possible, seems to be quite compatible with the function and way of life of the educational administrator.

The sizing up of the current world reality pertains also to what is read and who is consulted as well as whether one reads or whether one consults and discusses with others. The nature of the world of automation may involve a new organization of knowledge. Some observers insist that this is the case. If so, the administrator may have to be especially analytical and creative to determine just what is the nature of our present day world reality.

Even more important than any of these things mentioned so far may be the selective factor in determining who participates and who decides in matters pertaining to the formation and carrying out of educational policy. Evaluation of people who are to function in these capacities is even more difficult than that pertaining to teachers. It may have to be self-evaluation. How to talk people out of participation may become a type of counseling challenge for the administrator.

The choice and role of the participant will also bring in questions pertaining to the nature of the human life cycle. Should there be an age limit? How does aging affect judgment? Should older people be encouraged or discouraged, for instance, as potential school board members? Surely, the leaders of the school system have a responsibility for helping the individuals concerned and the community at large think through these matters.

IN CONCLUSION

The ability of man to think in terms of past and future, as well as of the present, is a great advantage over the time-boundness of other organisms. This is, however, no unmixed blessing. On the contrary, it could be man's undoing. When other animals start to expand their numbers and generally upset the balance of nature, there is always something to put them back in line. In man, this may be built-in; it may be his war-making tendencies possibly greatly influenced by this timeocentry.

The defeating of timeocentry will call for considerable education of the young with respect to its nature and causes. Before it can be taught, directly or indirectly, it will have to be taken into consideration by teachers and administrators. Above all, it will have to be defeated in the making of educational policy. For the administrator, the implications of all this are obvious: defeat timeocentry and you will improve education in your school; you may even contribute to the survival of the human race.

No Homework . . . No Report Card Grades . . . Ungraded

JOSEPH C. DEVITA

WE ARE all well acquainted with the numerous problems which have arisen in trying to schedule band, orchestra, strings, glee clubs, activity periods, and clubs during the regular six period day. Needless to say, something had to be done. Here at Benjamin Franklin Junior High School something *has been done*.

To our knowledge (limited, of course), in most junior high schools band, orchestra, glee clubs, strings, and other activities either infringe upon the time of the regular classroom instruction, take a minor role, are scheduled on a rotating basis, are scheduled during a club period, or are carried on after the regular school day. In an effort to improve this situation and to provide for these worth-while programs without sacrificing our academic program, we have initiated the following program:

<i>Tuesday</i>	<i>Wednesday</i>	<i>Thursday</i>
Band	Orchestra	Band
Strings	Glee Club (8th grade)	Glee Club (9th grade)
Glee Club (7th grade)		
<i>Monday and Friday</i>		
9th-grade elective of art, music, or study.		
7th and 8th grades have regular academic schedules.		

The time schedule for fourth period is from 11:07 to 12:28 including 22 minutes for lunch. Benjamin Franklin Junior High School has changed from a six-period to a seven-period school day.

Pupils have an opportunity to elect one or more of these activities. They are screened by the music department and selected accordingly. Now, the question arises, "What happens to the other pupils . . . the ones that are not involved in the music program?" Pupils in band, orchestra, glee club, and strings are scheduled first. Next, on a selected-elected basis, the remaining pupils are assigned to the school newspaper and the audio-visual operators clubs. Both of these selections must be ap-

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proved by the teacher-sponsor. At the same time, not as part of the regular instructional program, but on an individual flexible schedule, based upon the individual needs and interests, the remaining pupils are assigned to opportunity groups. They are assigned according to their individual interests, abilities, and needs with the emphasis being placed on *need*. Groupings are: algebra questioning, Latin discussion, creative writing, dramatics, reading, arithmetic trouble shooting, and spelling improvement. All areas will include units on *How To Study*, and *How To Take Tests*.

Sample schedules for fourth period:

	M	T	W	TH	F
9th grade—Mary A.	Art	CW	D	GC	Art
9th grade—Joe S.	Music	AV	A	SP	Music
9th grade—Peter C.	Study	LT	A	LT	Study
8th grade—Bob A.	Regular	SP	R	A	Regular
8th grade—Barbara S.	Academic	N	AV	A	Academic
8th grade—Sam D.	Schedule	CW	R	SP	Schedule
7th grade—Mike K.	Regular	R	R	R	Regular
7th grade—Herb J.	Academic	SP	AV	A	Academic
7th grade—Betty P.	Schedule	N	CW	D	Schedule

Key: CW—creative writing, D—dramatics, GC—glee club, AV—audio visual, A—arithmetic, SP—spelling, N—newspaper, R—reading, AL—algebra, LT—latin discussion.

No grades are given. The program is developed by careful teacher-pupil planning. A five-week topic plan is submitted to the administrator in charge of instruction. At the end of five weeks, the pupils and teachers evaluate the program and, if feasible, adjustments are made in their assignments. Pupils showing a satisfactory proficiency in their assigned area may be transferred to another group.

All available teachers are included in the opportunity program. Teacher assignments, whenever possible, are made according to interest and preference. Teachers that have a strong preference for a particular group have an opportunity to notify the office in writing and are assigned accordingly.

It was obvious that the program was needed. We were aware of the work and motivation involved. We knew it would demand time and interest. We are fortunate to have the "ingredients" to make it a success: *good teachers and dedicated teachers*. Undoubtedly, the key to any educational endeavor begins with the teachers.

At a school-wide guidance assembly the plan was introduced. A general discussion followed and the program was followed-up with a home-room guidance period. Each pupil was given the following sheet. They were asked to discuss the sheet with their parents and teachers and finally to make their selections.

• • • • •

PUPIL'S NAME _____ H.D. _____ SEC. _____

TO: ALL PUPILS

From: Mr. J. DeVita

Re: Schedule for 1960-61

Undoubtedly you all realize that the primary reason for having school is to provide you with an *opportunity to learn*.

The taxpayers of Norwalk, the State of Connecticut and the United States of America have made, and will continue to make, many unselfish sacrifices in order to bring to our young people an opportunity to gain a good firm education.

We, at Benjamin Franklin Junior High, have provided you with an outstanding schedule—one that is in keeping with the philosophy of meeting your individual needs, strengthening the fundamentals of education, and providing for exploration. Now once again, we are building into our program an opportunity for you to make another selection; a selection that must be based on "What is educationally best for me?"

NO GRADES will be given for these activities!! Only the most limited type of outside work will be assigned. You will help plan the program under the supervision of the teacher in charge.

This opportunity is made possible by changing to a seven-period day and by building into our program specific times for band, strings, orchestra and 7th-, 8th-, and 9th-grade glee clubs. *Your first consideration should be:*

	YES	NO	Only if YES TEACHER'S INITIALS
1. I am interested in			
Band	—	—	_____
Orchestra	—	—	_____
Strings	—	—	_____
Glee Club	—	—	_____
2. I am interested in			
Audio Visual Operator	—	—	_____
School Newspaper	—	—	_____
3. Select (3). Write in 1st, 2nd, 3rd choice.			
Algebra Questioning (For Alg. pupils only)			_____
Latin Discussion (For Latin pupils only)			_____
Creative Writing			_____
Dramatics			_____
Developmental Reading			_____
Arithmetic Trouble Shooting			_____
Spelling Improvement			_____
Reading Improvement			_____

Band, strings, orchestra, and glee club elections must be approved by the appropriate music teacher in charge of the activity.

Newspaper elections must be approved by Mrs. Schwebel.

Audio Visual operators must be approved by Mr. White.

All General Organization meetings will be held during the fourth period on either Tuesday, Wednesday, or Thursday.

All areas will include units on *How To Study* and *How To Take Tests*.

Thank you,

JDV/m

JDV

* * * * *

Pupil selections were then carefully scrutinized and assignments were made according to their selections, their needs, and the practical situations. The basic philosophy governing their placement was developed on the following hypotheses:

1. There should be some type of worth-while, educationally sound activities to enrich the regular curriculum.

2. Many junior high-school pupils could benefit from additional instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

3. Many accelerated and college preparatory students could benefit from a more casual, informal type of instruction.

4. A de-emphasis of earning a report-card grade and a re-emphasis of learning would be a good psychological trait to instill in our young people.

5. If given the proper guidance and alternatives, most pupils would evaluate their needs and make wise opportunity selections (especially if they are encouraged to make several selections from a limited number of sound choices).

After the assignments were made, pupils had an opportunity to reconsider and ask for an adjustment in their opportunity groupings. (Approximately 50 pupils were re-assigned.)

At the next faculty meeting, the entire program was discussed and, although there were some reservations as to the potential success of the program, all were willing to give it their professional best.

In addition to spelling materials, arithmetic workbooks, reading aids, reading laboratory kits, textbooks, the following suggestions were made available:

1. *Within the first four meetings*, band, music, and glee clubs should be organized.

2. Newspaper groups could work out procedures for reporting, reading proof, studying newspaper work, preparing a school newspaper, selecting officers, planning for short five-page school papers, planning to visit *Norwalk Hour*, writing to other schools for a copy of their school paper, training mimeograph operators, selecting typist, etc.

3. AV groups could learn how to operate all school AV equipment, trouble shoot and repair equipment, repair tapes, preview films, tour CMC, study various free materials sources, earn operators license, etc.

4. *Algebra and Latin* students will come from regular class sections. Clarification of difficult problems and translation, home-work clarification, review work, etc.

5. Creative writing groups. Explanation of creative writing; analyze good books; attempt to write short skits, poems, news items; cooperate with school newspaper and dramatics group; original creative work; etc.

6. *Dramatics.* Explanation of dramatics, classroom acting, short skits, read some plays, study some New York reviews, work with books, possibly prepare for school assembly program, *etc.*

7. *Arithmetic.* Mostly your own students, use expendable arithmetic workbooks, blackboard work, individual help, short daily exercises, review skills and procedures, clarification of process, buddy system, review work, group work, *etc.*

8. *Reading.* Use SRA materials provided. Utilize record cards, textbooks and Reader's Digest materials, and newspapers.

9. *Spelling.* Use spelling books provided as a guide, textbook words, short daily exercises, no homework, spelling bees, *etc.*

10. *All opportunity groups* will have a copy of *How To Be a Better Student*. There are many excellent exercises and suggestions in this book.

After five weeks of working with the program, teachers and pupils were given their first evaluation sheets with the following results:

Q. Worthwhile ideas?

A. Practically unanimously Yes

Q. Suggested changes?

A. (a) Desired smaller groups, (b) improved refinement of groups, (c) change to some other period, (d) should be 5 times per week, (e) endeavor to provide for greater continuity, and (f) more flexibility for changes.

Q. Benefiting from program?

A. Majority of teachers and pupils . . . Yes

Q. Ungraded?

A. Several advantages and disadvantages were expressed. Majority liked feature.

Q. No homework?

A. Almost unanimously Yes.

Q. No report-card grades?

A. Almost unanimously Yes.

Many commented that pupils are actually working to learn for the sake of learning rather than for a report-card grade. Following are a few:

a. Attempt to supply all groups with appropriate materials.

b. More stress on musical instruments.

c. Possibly some Norwalk Plan features could be utilized.

d. Addition of some cultural courses, such as art and music appreciation.

e. Addition of mechanical drawing and typing classes.

All in all, the program seems to be meeting the needs and interests of our pupils. It is providing for worth-while activities. We are using school time wisely. We are utilizing the special talents of our school staff. In addition, the stigma occasionally associated with those who seek and need additional instruction is minimized. Finally, the guidance counselors have agreed that pupils requesting a change in their opportunity groups have shown a remarkable degree of self-direction and self-evaluation.

Librarians Are Executives Too!

JUNE BERRY

DO YOU realize your librarian is an executive? At least she is if your library is a true library, providing the services a school library should. If it's a study hall or a book prison, or just a depository for old textbooks, your librarian is probably a disciplinarian or keeper of books. If this is the case, your librarian is not an educator or an executive and you will not want to read further. But wait! Maybe you do need to read further to review how a real school library functions and what a modern librarian does.

GENERAL MANAGER

First, your librarian is a manager and supervisor of everything that occurs in the library. Not only is she responsible for the arrangement of furniture and the organization of the files, but also the maintenance of a tidy and attractive room. Like any good manager, she sets up her objectives for each year, each month, and each day, and then organizes her staff to accomplish as many of her goals as possible. Although supervising the work of her staff takes much of her time, she also supervises all other students who come to the library. They come for study, reading, or research, and so supervision entails assisting and encouraging boys and girls as well as maintaining order and quiet. (If your library is a study hall, supervision takes up all of her time and little else can be accomplished.)

SECRETARY-TREASURER

Unfortunately, very few schools provide trained help to do the secretarial work involved in the library; the librarian, therefore, is a secretary in most schools. She composes, types, and mails all the business letters necessary to keep up to date on the latest library materials and trends.

Your librarian keeps a complete record of all materials in the library. She has a record which indicates the books checked out to children, the ones in the teachers' rooms, those at the bindery, and a few that are just plain missing. Many librarians also keep reading records. They can tell you the books Johnny has read this year and perhaps the things he likes or dislikes about each one.

As a treasurer, she budgets, or is given a budget to follow, with a definite percentage of the funds allocated for books, magazines, encyclopedias, supplies, and equipment. Then she must keep records of all money she spends so as to stay within that budget. In addition, some librarians even have to take in fine money and keep a record of these petty details.

June Berry is Librarian of the Brigham Young University High School, Provo, Utah.

PURCHASING AGENT

Although your librarian doesn't generally order books and magazines directly from the publishers, she qualifies as a purchasing agent because she must be familiar with the procedures used by purchasing agents of any business. Before the order reaches your desk, it has already gone through several processes. For example, the librarian has considered all the best sources for buying library supplies and equipment and has studied the products carefully. She compares quality and suitability as well as price. Then she decides what edition to purchase and whether to buy it in publishers binding, library binding, or prebinding. In addition, she determines whether one copy is sufficient or whether two or more might be needed.

In book selecting and ordering, exact and up-to-date records must be kept. Just as the purchasing agent records all his transactions, so the librarian keeps a file of books to be ordered, books ordered, books received, those out of print, out of stock, *etc.* Follow-up orders are necessary in order that those elusive out-of-print and out-of-stock books are finally located and received in the library.

PERSONNEL DIRECTOR

Every librarian who has any help at all in administering the library will automatically qualify as a personnel director; whether she has paid clerical workers or student assistants, she must maintain an atmosphere of happiness and teamwork among her staff. She is not only a teacher showing students how the library functions, but also a sort of employer or personnel person, explaining how each job is done. She must know every worker personally—his skills, interests, inabilities, and problems—so that she may assign him suitable work. At the same time, she is careful to teach every worker a variety of duties; she never lets one student do the same duties again and again all year, but provides opportunities for many types of activities. She probably has a record indicating the progress each worker has made in learning and performing these library skills.

PUBLIC RELATIONS DIRECTOR

In addition to keeping the staff busy and happy, the librarian must be sure the whole library presents an inviting picture to the public. The books are neatly shelved and the plants attractively arranged; if possible, furniture is informally grouped and reasonably comfortable. No matter how extensive the contents of the library may be, if its appearance is undesirable, it will not be used. Every librarian knows this and she does what she can to please the public.

Libraries are also used and judged according to the personality and cooperativeness of the librarian. Like a public relations expert, she must go more than half way to meet her public. *She should stop and help every person who needs her as if he were the most important person in the world.* She must also see that her library is interpreted to the adminis-

tration, just as you, Mr. Administrator, interpret your school to your community and to your superiors.

Another responsibility concerning public relations is publicity. Although publicity is time-consuming and expensive, the wise librarian advertises her services and materials by special bulletins, exhibits, book fairs, newspaper articles, and all other methods available to her.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRINCIPALS

If you agree your librarian is an executive, you will probably realize she has problems and needs common to any executive. First, she must have the respect and regard of her colleagues and her students. She must be on the same salary schedule as the other teachers and should work approximately the same number or hours. The students should recognize her as a *bona fide* member of the faculty and realize she merits all the prestige and privileges enjoyed by other teachers. And, of course, she must have *your* respect, support, and understanding.

FREE PERIODS WITHOUT INTERRUPTIONS

Every successful executive sets aside time for reading his mail, dictating his correspondence, and instructing his subordinates. He can do this in privacy, in an office where he is not interrupted every few minutes with routine questions and office business. Does your librarian have any free time for such duties? When does she write letters asking for free materials such as calendar pictures of Indians, birds, or presidents for the picture file? Or free pamphlets on cancer, France, or the United Nations to keep the pamphlet file up to date?

FREEDOM FROM ROUTINE WORK

Should the librarian be required to write her own letters when she needs to send for pictures, pamphlets, maps, posters, or charts? Do you write your own letters for schools business? Doesn't it seem a waste of money to pay a trained librarian to do typing and mailing when a typist could do it just as well and probably faster?

And speaking of wasted money, if your librarian catalogs all her own books, and types her own cards, and then files them herself, you're wasting hundreds of dollars of skill and training which could, and should, be used in helping teachers find information or in guiding children to appropriate reading books. A librarian is trained as a resource specialist, not as a typist or file clerk.

If your librarian has one or two student helpers practically every hour of the school day, she can train them to type cards, file cards, file pamphlets, mount pictures, check books in and out, and do many other routine duties. In addition, an hour or two of paid clerical help every day will relieve her from typing catalog cards, bibliographies, and correspondence, and afford opportunity to give teachers and students more personal help.

In all the executive and administrative duties listed above, little has been said of the purely technical library work involved in library management. We must not underestimate the non-executive work your librarian does—or should be doing.

CLASSIFYING AND CATALOGING

Probably the most time-consuming work involved in libraries is the processing of new books. Did you know that the processing of a book after it has been ordered consumes approximately one hour of time per book? Let's say you have 300 pupils and you spent the \$1.50 per pupil you should have for books last year. You received about 200 books if yours is an elementary school, and 150 if secondary. Has your librarian finished processing those books? Does she catalog after school? Did she do it this summer before school began? Or is she doing it *now* when she could be helping a pupil find a book to read? Some librarians, eager to get the books on the shelf and into use, have not only neglected the children and the teachers who need library help; they have even prejudiced people against libraries and books—unfortunately, some of them for life.

TEACHING LIBRARY USE

In the philosophy of the modern school, the school librarian is a teacher and is responsible for seeing that library use is taught to all pupils in the school. She may accomplish library instruction in three ways. *First*, she teaches individuals who ask her how to find a book before or after school. *Next*, she teaches whole classes who come to the library with their teacher when they need to learn how to use the library in their class assignments. *Third*, the librarian teaches her student assistants, individually and in small groups, to perform all the library duties they are capable of learning. All three types of students are important and all three types of instruction are necessary if boys and girls are to learn how to use a library.

READING GUIDANCE

Reading guidance should be given priority in the librarian's list of responsibilities; nothing is more important than helping boys and girls learn to read and learn to like to read. Yet one of the sights too often seen in our libraries is the pupil needing help in finding a book to read, but fearing to bother the librarian because she is so busy filing cards, checking out books, or keeping order in a "free reading" period or a study hall. Librarians, who know the pupils and know the books, must be freed from routine duties and given time to get the right pupil and the right book together at the right time.

REFERENCE HELP

Again, in finding answers to questions, the librarian is trained and experienced, yet she often fails in this responsibility because of other duties which demand her attention. There is something radically wrong

when a student or a teacher says, "I hate to bother you, but could you help me find . . ." And you can hear such words every day in school libraries throughout the nation. In your school, is the emphasis on processing, preparing, and filing materials? Do pupils and teachers feel like intruders and often leave the library without asking for the help they need?

Other duties could be enumerated—supervising audio-visual aids, mending books, *etc.*—but the point is that no person can do all these alone and administer a library effectively. Something has to suffer. Unfortunately, it is usually the children. Since the pressing problems come first—checking out books, putting books away, opening daily mail, checking off magazines, filing them, preparing new books for use—since these must be done, it is easier to leave the reading guidance, library instruction, and the educational services undone.

CONCLUSION

Since librarians do have many administrative duties, they need competent assistance to accomplish the clerical and routine office work involved in managing a library. The amount of genuine educational service a librarian gives is directly affected by the amount of clerical assistance available to her. Unless you furnish adequate library help, clerical or student or both, your librarian can not perform the vital educational services needed by the students and teachers in your school.

The Faculty Incentive Plan at Odessa College

LUIS M. MORTON

THIS is the inspiring story of a county junior college and its successful efforts in creating an atmosphere of continued academic excellence. The climate on the campus of this busy college has traditionally been one of warmth and friendliness. Relations among the faculty, administration, and Board of Regents could only be described as one of comradeship. Faculty morale has always been high. This superior working environment, however, has never contributed to a feeling of complacency; on the contrary, the reverse has emerged, and a plan for uninterrupted faculty academic improvement has become a sudden and pleasant reality.

Some time ago, the President of the Board of Regents announced at a regular board meeting that he felt that the exigencies of this era cried for sound vision, greater sacrifice, higher educational aims, and academic excellence. He added that, if our civilization was to survive the apparent perils and meet every challenge successfully, our citizens would have to be prepared to meet their responsibilities with action and not words. He further emphasized that, among others, an indispensable factor in providing the needed strength in education was a superior faculty which would be constantly engaged in formal study and training—one which would be in a perpetual state of academic alert; one which could feel a sense of personal advancement as well as professional growth. In order to accomplish this, teaching personnel should be provided the necessary means to pursue higher education regardless of the advanced position of their present educational status. He did not mince words when he introduced a resolution for "*some kind of faculty incentive plan.*" The President of the Board of Regents advocated a program which would take the classroom instructor, including those holding doctorates, back to graduate school at regular intervals. Needless to say, the faculty was immediately enthusiastic over the possibility of such a project materializing. They were equally appreciative for the enlightened and generous suggestion. They would not have long to wait.

The first step was to establish a committee composed of members from the faculty, administration, and Board of Regents to study the feasibility of such a course of action and to work out a preliminary draft of suggestions. The next step was to refine the general suggestions and emerge with con-

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crete statements to govern the plan. Within a few days, a detailed program was completed and made ready to present to the teachers. The third step was accomplished as quickly as the first two. A faculty meeting was called and the generous recommendations contained in the plan were accepted unanimously. In the final step, the Board of Regents reviewed the recommendations made by the committee and with minor alterations, passed the proposed faculty "*incentive plan*."

THE PLAN

The plan is simple enough. It provides an additional month's salary *each year* if, during a period of three years, the faculty members will further their education by passing with satisfactory grades at least eight semester hours of graduate work in their fields. One case has already arisen wherein a *teacher* planning to attend summer school could not find the proper graduate courses to take. In this instance the teacher was advised by the President to enroll in courses in a related field even though they would constitute undergraduate studies. This was done so that the proper prerequisite subjects could be satisfied. In situations like this, the rule of reason must be applied. The following is a general statement of the purpose and organization of the plan as passed by the Board of Regents of Odessa College:

Never in history has it been more imperative that the United States make the best use of its human resources; never in history has it been more necessary that every citizen of the United States be educated to make his best contribution to American life. These two things are necessary if the United States is to maintain its lead in international relations, international affairs, and international competition.

With the larger and larger numbers of students entering and seeking to enter colleges of the United States, with training beyond the high school becoming more and more necessary for the economic and professional development of the individual, colleges everywhere are seeking to expand their facilities, increase their faculties, and improve the quality of instruction offered.

This committee recognizes the excellent professional status of the faculty of Odessa College as evidenced by the success of its graduates in senior colleges and universities, in professional schools, and in the economic life of this and other communities. This committee feels that the faculty should be encouraged to maintain and improve this status, thereby contributing to the efficiency of the teaching staff of the college, and in turn benefiting students of the college.

The committee recommends that the following plan of professional development be adopted by the Board of Regents to become effective with the fall semester of 1960:

1. That the full-time teaching personnel of Odessa College who are at present on less than a twelve months' contract be placed on an extra month's salary, the extra month's salary to consist of $1/9$ of the annual teaching salary.

2. That in return the teaching personnel of Odessa College be required to accumulate a minimum of eight semester hours every three years.
3. That the eight semester hours must be in the major academic teaching field, or related fields, of the instructor, with grades of satisfactory quality.
4. That in the case of instructors who already possess doctorates, the amount of hours accumulated will be the same as that for teachers who do not possess doctorates.
5. That prior to taking this credit work, the instructor will confer with the President of the college on the courses to be taken and secure written administrative approval of the proposed courses.
6. That a system of escrow be developed for the extra month's pay under the following conditions:
 - a. Teachers who earn 8 semester hours on their own accord in the summer of 1960 will be eligible for the 10th month's salary in the summers of 1961, 1962, and 1963.
 - b. Teachers who accumulate 8 semester hours in the summer of 1961 will be eligible for the 10th month's pay in the summers of 1961, 1962, and 1963.
 - c. Teachers who accumulate 8 semester hours in the summer of 1962 will be eligible for two month's pay at the end of the summer of 1962 and one month's pay in the summer of 1963.
 - d. Teachers who wait until the summer of 1963 to earn 8 semester hours will be paid two month's pay at the end of the summer of 1963, and one month's salary at the end of the next school year.
 - e. Provisions of this escrow system will be repetitive beginning with the summer of 1964.
 - f. Any faculty member who resigns from Odessa College to accept a position elsewhere will forfeit any escrow payments previously earned.
 - g. All new instructors shall become eligible for participation in this plan immediately upon beginning employment.
7. That the provisions of this plan be made compulsory on all instructors with exceptions noted below.
8. That members of the teaching staff who are on a twelve months' contract be permitted six weeks release every third summer to earn college credit, if they so desire, with the approval of the President.
9. That this plan in no way involves non-teaching staff members whose summer plans for work on an advanced degree have already been approved by the Board of Regents.
10. That members of the physical education staff be permitted to substitute a total of two weeks of physical education clinics for two semester hours of the total of 8 hours required. If this substitution is made, funds paid to instructors for expenses while attending clinics will be discontinued.

WHAT THE PLAN HAS DONE

It is almost unnecessary to mention the effect of the incentive plan on faculty morale. Despite the excellent working conditions which prevail at the college and notwithstanding the wholesome and repeated yearly salary increment to which the faculty has been accustomed, nothing seems to have spiraled the feeling of goodwill as high as the plan in question. The personal interest exhibited by the board toward them, as well as the professional advancement which would assure them a more rewarding future, was enough to create an atmosphere of confidence and joy. Space and good taste precludes extensive elaboration on the multiplicity of plans and dreams already being plotted by the faculty. Although members of the administration were not included in this plan, the Regents have established a policy of permitting each administrator who can better himself academically by attending graduate school, to attend six weeks of summer school each year. Salaries are continued during the weeks they are away studying.

As soon as the plan was passed many faculty members began investigating the possibilities of attending summer school during the first year of the plan's operation; namely, during the summer of 1961. Since the intention of the Regents was to make the plan flexible enough to meet reasonable requirements, a few teachers decided to request that their attendance of school during the summer of 1960 be counted to satisfy the plan's requirements. Minor matters like these were easily worked out to the satisfaction of everyone. Of course it is not possible to consider intangible future plans as concrete in nature, but a number of the faculty have expressed the desire to do advanced work every year. Others feel that they would like to attend every other summer, and some say they will go every third summer. The incentive plan has already made it financially possible for several to achieve a more advanced degree within a much shorter period of time than they had originally anticipated.

When a faculty member decides to begin study under the incentive plan a very simple procedure is employed. There is practically no red tape involved in determining which institution to attend and which courses to take. The teacher planning to attend merely chooses a recognized and properly accredited institution and maps out a course plan which includes the description of the course and relates it to his field of study. A brief form is filled out and presented to the President of the college, who reviews the information, and, if everything is in order, gives the formal permission.

As already mentioned, the intention of the Regents was to provide a flexible and reasonable plan which could be molded to the needs of the recipients. For example, subsequent to confirming the incentive plan, the board declared that teachers receiving a "leave of absence" for the purpose of prolonged study would be eligible to receive benefits under the plan when they returned to work at Odessa College. This and other instances of "adjustment" indicate that, where there is good faith, a solu-

tion is easily available. Obviously, where the needs are varied and circumstances to be considered are diverse, a rigid plan would be unworkable.

FACULTY INTEREST IS ELECTRIC

For the teachers who attended school during the summer of 1959, *six* studied during the summer of 1960 and *eight* during the summer of 1961. This partially valid evidence indicates that the percentage of those planning to study in the future is several times greater than those who attended prior to the passing of the incentive plan. Of course, only time and trial will reveal the true worth of this program, but in the meantime there is every hope that it will be a success and that everyone—students, community, faculty, and college—will benefit from its spirit and content.

THE COST OF THE PLAN

Since this college is supported by county tax funds, and since the major taxpayers are naturally conscious of any new large expenditure, one might wonder about their attitude concerning the expense involved in implementing a plan of this magnitude. The cost of the project will amount to an initial increase in budget expenditures of roughly \$35,000 per year. Everyone connected with the formulation of the incentive plan was pleased to learn that, when a committee composed of major taxpayers gave their opinion of the new program, they were complimentary of the purpose and organization of the project. Furthermore, they agreed that it was a worthy undertaking that would unquestionably assist in raising the quality of instruction. These men were happy to be able to endorse such a program and accepted the additional cost as merely another responsibility which communities should willingly assume. These men also agreed that in no way did they consider the incentive plan as a device to raise salaries, but as a necessary expenditure to meet the educational requirements of this age.

Incidentally, since the plan was adopted, to our knowledge no adverse criticism concerning either the purpose of the plan or the amount allocated for it has been expressed by citizens of the community. In fact, numerous compliments have been received from businessmen and civic leaders. All of this points out the acceptability of the plan to the community as a whole. This might be indicative of how other communities might react to similar programs.

Student Participation in Acquainting Teachers and Parents

GEORGE BOLZ

OUR first PTA meeting was enjoyed by teachers, pupils, and parents during a pleasant evening in October when the staff was introduced in a unique manner. Ordinarily, the principal presented the teachers by mentioning their names and grade assignments; the teachers rose briefly, then were seated without being seen by most of the audience. This year we planned all introductions by students.

At a faculty meeting we discussed how the teachers, secretaries, nurses, counselors, and custodians could be introduced. In some home rooms, the teachers involved the students in suggesting how a pupil from the class would introduce the teacher. As part of the language program, the teachers arranged to be interviewed during the language program period; these interviews were written in biographical form by the students who read their introductions, then selected one student to make the actual introduction.

This student involvement seemed to promote considerable enthusiasm and interest in the language classes, probably because a specific purpose was in evidence. The principal felt that the student enthusiasm stemmed directly from the goodwill and fond respect the boys and girls had for their teachers and were now able in a small way to show this publicly. Since the deep feeling found in early adolescents do not lend themselves to ready expression, this presented an opportunity for the pupils to show their personal regard for their teachers.

Student involvement brought a large audience to the program that evening. All the teachers and school personnel were seated in front of the audience with the boy or girl who introduced the teacher seated next to the teacher. The first teacher was introduced by a boy who gallantly escorted his teacher to the microphone where she stood beside him. This procedure continued unless a teacher was reluctant to stand during the introduction; in these cases, the teacher stood later to acknowledge the introduction.

Vigorous applause greeted the day custodian when he was introduced. Boys and girls, their parents, and the staff recognized this gentleman as a person who contributed wholeheartedly to the welfare of the children

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and staff. An industrious worker with a strong sense of pride in the school, he is always a gracious listener to the boys and girls who hold him in high esteem. Several months later our custodian was awarded an honorary life membership in the PTA, and at that ceremony the walls were decorated with papers covered with question marks. When the question marks were removed, the audience saw letters of appreciation written by the pupils as a tribute to their beloved custodian.

The audience beamed as the teachers were introduced and inwardly each faculty member felt proud of the boys and girls. A hesitation, the mention of a humorous incident in a teacher's career, gave everyone an appreciation of seventh- and eighth-grade students at their best. The variety of approaches employed in the introductions gave a unique quality to each one. One student gave his teacher's age, paused incredulously before continuing—his teacher was 25 years old, and later commented how the introduction delighted him.

Each student exercised originality and creativity in the one-minute introduction. This time limit was necessary to ensure adequate time for group conferences which were held in the classrooms later. Pupils conducted the parents from the auditorium to the classrooms where the teachers took the lead in welcoming the parents and getting them acquainted. Some students had left a note in their desks for their parents to read in the classroom.

Posted in the classrooms were the standards developed in the room, the students' daily schedule, and the teacher's schedule. Teaching aids, charts, maps, and textbooks were on display. A sign-up sheet for parents who desired an individual conference was on the teacher's desk. Most teachers gave a formal presentation of the daily schedule and curriculum offerings to the parents followed by a discussion period. Emphasis was devoted to our team approach in regard to how the home-room teacher functions as a liaison resource in communicating with the various teachers (shop, home economics, art, music, reading, physical education) who work with the class.

An evaluation of the meeting revealed general teacher acceptance of the program. All teachers were pleased with their introductions. Values of the teacher presentations in their own classrooms were expressed as the following:

- 1) Helped parents to see an overview of the curriculum at each grade level
- 2) Better understanding between parents and teachers was reached
- 3) Questions asked by parents revealed their high interest
- 4) Parents gained better understanding of school problems and policies
- 5) Meeting established friendly relationship with parents which will lead to close parent-teacher cooperation
- 6) The group meeting served as an introduction for future individual teacher-parent conferences.

Mentioned by a number of teachers was the parents' desire for more information about their child. This general meeting attracted many parents who were primarily interested in learning more about their own child. Since the latter deserved consideration, our faculty arranged teacher visits to the homes.

This October PTA meeting with the special emphasis upon pupil participation brought many benefits for the entire year. Parents and teachers saw the youngsters in an appealing manner. The boys and girls recognized their key role in the successful conduct of this meeting which was designed primarily to build the home-school partnership.

The Book Column

Professional Books

BLUEN, A. W.; J. F. COX; and GENE McPHERSON. *Television in the Public Interest*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$6.95. Practical information and advice on an area almost totally neglected heretofore in the literature of television—how the layman may make better use of the TV medium for public service causes and projects—are presented in nontechnical language in this comprehensive manual. Beginning with the fundamentals—the organization and operation of the typical local television station—there are then examined such major problems as: how to seek time and develop sound working relations with a station; how to plan and prepare scripts, visual, and recorded materials; how and when to use films and tapes; how to prepare for studio performance, and how to work effectively before the cameras.

COBB, M. C. *The Scientific Approach to Career Planning*. New York 10: Lantern Press, Inc., 257 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 142 pp. \$3.95. This is a timely book for everyone who is faced with the problem of career planning. The students in high school or college; employers; guidance advisers; professional career counselors; parents; even adults, who haven't yet found themselves, will find this volume of help. Applicable to every field of endeavor, the methods outlined by the author in clear language, will save the wasted years and vain regrets which follow haphazard decisions or "drifting."

COLEMAN, J. S. *The Adolescent Society*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 384 pp. \$6.95. In this book, the author has explored and analyzed the social systems of ten high schools of widely varied communities—from small rural towns to large urban centers. He has related the differences between the schools to their value systems. The "elites" of these subcultures, their attitudes, interests, and achievements are considered, as are also the effects on adolescents of the values of their societies, of the social rewards for athletic, scholastic, and "popular" prowess.

He has examined the effects of the various adolescent societies on boys and girls, the special effects of early maturity, and the effects of the structure of the activities in the school. All these contributions will be valuable to everyone concerned with youth and their education. To those who believe that the "atmosphere" pervading the high school—which, perhaps necessarily, affects its goals—is often less conducive to education than any alternative, this book promises insight into the structure of the adolescent society and an increased ability to deal with and channel the energies of youth.

CRAIG, J. M. *Tales Out of School*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street. 1961. 208 pp. \$3.75. This book records the hilarious, touching series of incidents through which "that man in the office" changed a tough crowd of individualists into a devoted, united student body. Their uniforms may have been cockeyed and their language inelegant, but when they knew somebody cared, at least their manners were perfect.

CROSS, A. J. F., and I. F. CYPHER. *Audio-Visual Education*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 432 Park Avenue South. 1961. 419 pp. \$7.25. This volume is intended to bring the reader abreast of the most modern developments in audio and visual aids and to show how these developments fit in the never-ceasing movement toward improved communication for improved living.

The authors have attempted to present concisely the essential characteristics of all types of audio and visual aids and to show in a practicable way how these aids can be used in a wide variety of teacher-learner situations. The text has been planned so as to be of sound practical help to the professional educator directing a college-level course, as well as to the teacher in the classroom and to instructors in educational projects within industry and all forms of adult education.

Along with text material describing all types of audio-visual aids, pictures and diagrams and step-by-step suggestions have been included for such things as making a diorama, creating "mimeographed" material without a stencil, or wiring a classroom to meet the demands of new electrical teaching devices. There are bibliographies of books, periodicals, filmstrips, etc., and a classified directory containing names and addresses for items ranging from arts and crafts supplies to electronic teaching devices.

But mere knowledge of equipment and materials is inadequate. Consequently, the authors have sought to take a realistic look at just what can be expected from these important tools of learning. The text helps readers evaluate what has been learned about each audio and visual aid, and through specific, detailed suggestions, it assists them in learning how to apply their knowledge in planning and carrying out effective programs of instruction that make wise use of such materials.

DE BERNARDIS, AMO; V. W. DOHERTY; ERRETT HUMMEL; and C. W. BRUBAKER. *Planning Schools for New Media*. Portland, Oregon: Division of Education, Portland State College. 1961. 72 pp. (9 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ "). \$1.00. This guide has been prepared to assist school board members, school superintendents, and architects in planning school buildings so that teachers may make full and effective use of modern media of instruction. The need for this manual is found in the ever increasing use of films and other projected matter, radio and television, electronic learning laboratories, closed-circuit television, intercommunication systems, reading accelerators, and other instructional media. The nation's new school buildings, many of which will serve for 50 years or more, should be designed for proper use of new media or at least fitted so that such media may be used in the future as their instructional values become confirmed.

This manual was prepared as a reference guide for an aspect of school planning that has been seriously neglected not only in older school buildings but in many modern ones as well. In bold outline, it presents essential information needed by laymen, school people, and architects for planning schools to utilize modern teaching technology.

DeHAAN, R. F., and R. J. HAVIGHURST. *Educating Gifted Children*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue. 1961. 372 pp. \$5. This is a major revision, greatly enlarged, of the book first published in 1957. Mr. DeHaan and Mr. Havighurst have substantially rewritten it, adding several new chapters and thus bringing up to date research findings, issues, and current discussions of the problems of educating the gifted child.

The philosophical, social, personal, and manpower issues involved are thoroughly studied, and the nature of giftedness is considered in the reorganized first chapter. Among the new chapters is one discussing the objectives of educating gifted children not only at the philosophical level affecting curriculum construction and classroom management. The term "enrichment" is analyzed, and another new chapter is devoted to administrative devices for making enrichment possible—classroom enrichment, special grouping, acceleration.

Other entirely new chapters concern the teaching of creative thinking; leadership and the development of non-intellectual talents; successful programs; community and family resources; the process of research. The original chapters on motivation, identification, administrative problems, the teacher in the classroom, and the handling of the genius are modified according to latest research. This is a book designed to inform teachers and administrators of work being done and to encourage them in their own programs. The fact that programs illustrative of elementary, secondary, and college levels are discussed gives this work exceptional breadth. Lists of study and discussion questions appear at the end of each chapter which will be particularly helpful to instructors and study groups.

GARDNER, GEORGE, and STANLEY WASHBURN, JR., editors. *New Horizons in Education*. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, Box 7600. 1961. 560 pp. \$1.95. This book is a guide to the principal universities of the world. It presents facts about 38 universities abroad. It contains information about size, course of study, fees, accommodations, average cost, student life, and admission requirements.

HALVERSON, P. M., editor. *Frontiers of Secondary Education V*. Syracuse 10: Syracuse University Press, Box 87, University Station. 1961. 80 pp. \$1.75. This publication contains the papers presented at the Fifth Annual Conference on Secondary Education by the School of Education during the summer session at Syracuse University in 1960. Following are the titles of the seven papers and the names of the persons presenting them: The Criticism of Education: Fact, Fiction and Forecast by Hobert W. Burns; Toward a Conception of a Quality by Arthur W. Foshay; Basic Agreements and Continuing Issues in the Secondary Curriculum by Paul R. Pierce; A Right Amount of Skepticism by Fred P. Barnes; The Dual Progress Plan—After Two Years by George D. Stoddard; The Learning Process and the Secondary-School Curriculum by Thomas E. Clayton; What Goals Should We Seek in Secondary-School Physical Education? by John H. Shaw.

JOHNSON, W. F.; BUFORD STEFFLRE; and R. A. EDELFELT. *Pupil Personnel and Guidance Services*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 419 pp. \$6.50. Intended for the basic course in pupil personnel services, guidance, or the counseling sequence, this text presents an approach to understanding children in terms of several perceptions of their behavior, includes a number of tested instruments and techniques for individual analysis, covers the theory and technique of counseling and group guidance procedures, looks to the future of the personnel field with its increasing complexity and increasing use of the teacher's skills, considers the total field of pupil personnel services—psychology and social work as well as guidance—includes a review of child growth principles and sociological data important for the understanding of children, spells out the function and training of the school psychologist, social school worker, and the elementary-, and

secondary-school counselor, and points up the place of guidance in the elementary school and specifically the role of the elementary-school counselor.

LINDSEY, MARGARET, editor. *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 256 pp. \$3 (cloth), \$2 (paper). This publication is a report of a two-year national project directed toward the establishment of new goals and ways of advancing the standards of the teaching profession. This report from the National Education Association's Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards encompasses specific recommendations for selection, teacher education, accreditation, certification, and the advancement of professional standards. This final report of the project was prepared by a task force of recognized authorities in education. In addition to recommendations in the areas above, their study provides a rationale for these recommendations and proposes action which might be taken by individuals and groups toward complete professionalization of teaching. Drawing from this report and results of its recent Annual Conference, the National TEPS Commission will ultimately establish a new set of goals and policies.

MAYER, MARTIN. *The Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1961. 464 pp. \$4.95. In all the clatter and racket of controversy over the quality of American education, real information has been hard to come by. Meaningless statistics are added and subtracted and juggled; administrators' statements are mistaken for descriptions of what is actually happening; critics angrily demand procedures that are already followed, or furiously condemn actions that never occur. Meanwhile, in the depths of classrooms with the doors closed, the process of education slowly and quietly moves forward.

The Schools is an attempt to get at and to understand what is actually going on in these classrooms. It rests on the base of the author's visits to about a thousands classrooms in about 150 schools, public and private or "independent," mostly in the United States, but also—because so much of the controversy deals with assertions of what European children do or do not do—in Britain, France, Denmark, Finland and Norway.

To supplement and to help interpret the facts, the author read endlessly and interviewed some fifteen hundred people involved in education—teachers, professors of education, administrators, textbook publishers, test makers, foundation officials, and others. The result is a reporter's book, written to be read with pleasure, telling the stories of things that actually happened during the last three years in classrooms from Pasadena to Kansas City to New York to Paris to Helsinki to Boston to Detroit to Tucson and elsewhere. Around the observed facts, the author has placed his own interpretations and judgments, and his explanations of why the schools are as they are.

MEADVILLE, H. W. *The Relationship of Initial School Plant Cost and Compactness in Secondary-School Buildings*. SPL Research Report No. 4. Stanford, California: School Planning Laboratory, School of Education, Stanford University. 1961. 79 pp., charts and graphs. \$2. A research study on the relationship of initial school plant cost and building compactness in secondary-school buildings. Other SPL Research Reports published earlier include the following: No. 1—*The Relationship of Initial Cost and Maintenance Cost in Elementary-School Buildings* by William J. Zimmerman; No. 2—*Comparative Costs and Utilization of Permanent and Transportable Classrooms* by Francis

D. Largent; and No. 3—*The Relationship of School Plant Expense and Building Compactness in Elementary-School Buildings* by Robert E. McLean. Each 50 cents. These earlier reports are summaries of dissertations, prepared for use by the practitioner.

ORTON, S. T. *Reading, Writing, and Speech Problems in Children*. New York 3: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 55 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 217 pp. \$4.95. The author describes a number of types of disorders occurring during childhood, discusses their origin and the methods of correcting them, and criticizes certain methods now in widespread use as contributing to the reading disability which in turn gives rise to academic failures and emotional disturbances. Again, he calls attention to the fact that interference by parents in the normal development of children, particularly by attempting to force a left-handed child to acquire the pattern of righthandedness, is frequently the basis of serious disorders in speech. Also presented in this book are discussions of certain types of deafness, abnormal clumsiness, stuttering, and other problems of definite concern to teacher and to parent.

ROTHSTEIN, J. H., editor. *Mental Retardation*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 640 pp. This book highlights the newest approaches and research and presents completely comprehensive background and reference material. Parents and parent organizations as well as educators, psychologists, and sociologists will find it profitable reading. In the introductions to sections the editor provides historical background, presents related problems, and gives references for further reading. The articles are supplemented by many tables, charts, and other resource materials. These supplementary materials will save the reader endless hours of search. They include lists of films and audiovisual materials on mental retardation; lists of curriculum guides for educable and trainable mentally retarded children; reading lists for parents; and data on Federal and state services for the mentally retarded.

SCHNEIDER, R. C. *Space for Teachers*. Stanford, California: School Planning Laboratory, School of Education, Stanford University. 1961. 24 pp. 25¢ per copy; for 25 or more, 20¢ per copy. This 4-color booklet is the first of a planned series on basic ideas and concepts on the planning of space for educational facilities. A free copy will be sent upon request to the School Planning Laboratory. Additional copies may be purchased as quoted above.

The Slow Learner in Secondary Schools. Plainfield, New Jersey: Lester D. Beers, New Jersey Secondary-School Teachers Association, 1035 Kenyon Avenue. 1961. 100 pp. \$1. Reporting the practices and views of one hundred teachers of slow learners, this *Yearbook* has for every teacher a wealth of ideas by which learning can become meaningful and useful in the experience of slow learners. Contrary to the beliefs of some teachers, curriculum content for the slow learner need not be greatly unlike that in the best programs for more able students. But, contrary to the practices of some teachers, the approaches to learning, materials, techniques, and human relations for slow learners need to be quite specific to the problem.

SOWARDS, G. W., and M. M. SCOBAY. *The Changing Curriculum and the Elementary Teacher*. San Francisco 11: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 431 Clay Street. 1961. 558 pp. Here is an analysis of the problems facing those who design and carry out elementary-school curriculum. Clearly and persuasively written, the authors carefully examine current educational issues and relate them to the role of the classroom teacher as an implementor of curriculum plans.

Distinctive features of the book are: organized logically for effective teaching and learning within a well-developed and consistent framework; gives a comprehensive treatment of the elementary-school curriculum—its history, objectives, guides for planning, learning areas, teacher's role, use of people, materials, space and time; and evaluation; written in a clear, persuasive, and interesting style; acquaints the reader with recent research and up-to-date professional writings; explains the "why" of elementary-school teaching with implications for the "how"; presents divergent points of view and discusses each thoroughly; emphasizes contemporary issues, problems, and long-term trends facing today's educators; draws actual illustrations of successful teaching practices from the authors' experiences as teachers and administrators; takes a definite stand on controversial issues and defends that position by citing—current research—leading questions, graphs, charts, and sample schedules.

WELLEMAYER, J. F., JR., editor. *Compensation on the Campus*. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Higher Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 536 pp. \$2 to AHE members; \$3 to non-members. The case studies included in this report are intended as a source of ideas for college and university faculty and administrators wrestling with problems of improving salaries, salary practices, and fringe benefits for faculty members.

The nature of the project was decided upon by the executive committee of the Association for Higher Education and further developed by a project planning committee which met in Washington in October 1959. Subsequently, J. F. Wellemeyer, Jr., as an independent consultant, was asked to direct the study and, with the help of the AHE staff and others, he worked out the design and methods used in these reports. The study was financed by a special project grant of \$21,000 from the National Education Association, augmented by a grant of \$2,000 from the United States Steel Foundation.

The fourteen colleges and universities included in the study represent a broad range of types of institutions of higher learning though they do not constitute a statistical sample. Six of them are private, eight are public. There is one women's college, one men's. The three state universities are also, as it happens, land-grant colleges. One large municipal university is included, and two teachers colleges. No junior colleges are represented as their problems seem to be somewhat different from those of four-year institutions. Two of the institutions are in New England, three in the Middle Atlantic states, three in the South, two in the Middle West, one in the Rocky Mountain region, and three on the Pacific Coast.

The colleges and universities in this group were included because a review of data available before selection indicated that in each of the fourteen institutions there was something in faculty compensation practices worthy of emulation by other colleges and universities. This plus factor may have been a reasonably good salary scale, although institutions at the very highest levels were consciously omitted from the study. The reason for selection may have been something in the way salaries were administered, exceptional provisions respecting retirement or tenure, or substantial recent increases in salaries. Two or three of the institutions have relatively low salaries now, but have had a remarkable record of increases in recent years. In fact, all of these institutions have had significant salary increases in the past few years, and the reports demonstrate that nothing is more conducive to improved faculty morale.

Books for Teacher-Pupil Use

AMES, S. R. *Nkrumah of Ghana*. Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally & Company, 8255 Central Park Avenue. 1961. 184 pp. \$3.50. This book appears when the world's spotlight is on Africa. While it concentrates on Ghana and the statesman who, almost alone, achieved independence for his country, it provides a background for understanding the daily news stories through its vivid portrayal of the life and activities of the Ghanaian people and their leader.

ANCKARSVARD, KARIN. *Springtime for Eva*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. 1961. 157 pp. \$2.95. Seventeen-year-old Eva, thoughtful, attractive, and well-liked, was deeply shocked by the automobile accident in which, though she and two other friends were not badly hurt, one boy was killed. Why should such a tragedy strike? Why were there so many seemingly unfair and wholly inexplicable occurrences in life? Gradually, helped by the wise understanding of her greatly loved stepmother and of friends, Eva resumes her normal way of life at school and at home and continues to grow in balance and maturity.

ANDREWS, M. E. *Hostage to Alexander*. New York 18: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 141 pp. \$3.75. In the fourth century B.C., Alexander of Macedon was vying with Darius III of Persia for mastery of the world. This is the story of a great man who not only built a vast empire but, in so doing, also put into practice his forward-looking concept of *one world* in which Greeks, Persians, Egyptians, and all others would be equal citizens.

ANDRIST, R. K. *The California Gold Rush*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 153 pp. \$3.50. The discovery of gold in California spurred the biggest, fastest settlement of a new frontier that America had ever known. "In the first two years after the discovery of gold in California," writes Mr. Hanna in the book's Foreword, "almost one hundred thousand people poured into the new territory. . . . This book should give young readers a good understanding of the decisive manner in which the forty-niners spurred the growth of the West, while also conveying much of the turbulence and enthusiasm of that adventurous era."

The book quotes from diaries and journals of miners who complain of high prices, aches, pains, and discomfort. Only a small percentage made their fortunes, but some men were phenomenally lucky. Huge chunks of gold were found lying on the ground—one 28-pound nugget, for example, was picked up at the edge of a potato patch. Lucky George McKnight, while searching for a stray cow, stubbed his toe on an outcrop of white quartz—a vein so rich it has not yet been entirely worked, although \$80,000,000 has been taken out since 1850.

AUSTEN, JANE. *Sense and Sensibility*. New York 22: New American Library, 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 320 pp. 50¢. Two sisters of opposing temperaments who share the pangs of tragic love provide the theme for this dramatically human narrative.

Beyond the High Hills, A Book of Eskimo Poems. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 West 110th Street. 1961. 32 pp. \$3.95. The photographs in this book are by Father Guy Mary-Rousseliere. When Knud Rasmussen, the Danish explorer, returned from his fifth expedition to Arctic North America, he brought with him a large collection of Eskimo poems

from many tribal groups. Many of these poems—which are really songs chanted spontaneously to celebrate the hunt or other feats, great sorrow or great happiness, or merely the joy of being alive—deserve a wide audience and an honored place in the world's literature. Created by people whose only way of transmitting knowledge was by word of mouth, they have a clarity of thought and a preciseness of image that is the hallmark of poetry everywhere. And since they are sung and danced and acted out again and again during the long Arctic nights, they have a polished rhythm that almost sings itself.

BIXBY, WILLIAM. *The Race to the South Pole*. New York 18: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 215 pp. \$3.25. In the Antarctic summer of 1911-12, two expeditions to the South Pole gathered on the world's southernmost shores—each with the avowed purpose of reaching the Pole first. Captain R. L. Scott was in McMurdo Sound, where he had been on an earlier expedition. Roald Amundsen, a hardy Norwegian and veteran of Arctic exploration, was in the Bay of Whales. Thus the stage was set for one of the most dramatic episodes in the history of the modern world.

BOLTON, CAROLE. *The Callahan Girls*. New York 16: William Morrow & Company, 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 224 pp. \$2.95. At twelve-thirty Kate Callahan looked up from her desk in a New York market research office and saw her sister Peggy, a vision in a blue summer dress that matched her eyes. At exactly the same moment her lunch date came out of the inner offices. Peggy gave the young man one of her slow smiles, and Kate resigned herself to the inevitable. She was going to lose another date to Peggy.

BRINK, CAROL. *The Twin Cities*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 205 pp. \$5. Minneapolis and St. Paul are situated on the same river as New Orleans, yet in tradition and culture they are a world apart. The author begins with a description of their setting, sketches the history of the area, and devotes most of her book to the Twin Cities of today. It is full of people (the only reason for the existence of cities) and portrays in lively style the individual flavor and rhythm of daily life in America's "northern paradise."

CARGILL, OSCAR. *The Novels of Henry James*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 523 pp. \$7.95. This is a definitive study of the novels of Henry James and a complete review of the criticism of him up to the present. Mr. Cargill's examination of the many articles and books on James and his careful re-reading of the novels themselves have led him to a new interpretation of James that will be of immediate interest to scholars and students.

COLLIER, RICHARD. *The Sands of Dunkirk*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton & Company, 300 Park Avenue South. 1961. 319 pp. \$4.50. What was it like to be there? Soldiers smeared with lipstick, howling, screeching, careening through the blazing town—men making their way to the beaches, wobbling wildly on bicycles with radios and refrigerators strapped to their handlebars—soldiers turning their rifles on their officers, officers paralyzed with fear, cringing and crying—men kneeling bareheaded in the sand as a padre prayed and bombs rained down—men marching in perfect formation into the sea until the water engulfed them—soldiers setting off for England on a door, an inner tube, a raft made of barrels, using their rifles as paddles. This is the vivid and dramatic recreation of one of the great evacuations in military history—those nine days at the end of May and beginning of June 1940, when 338,000 British and French troops were taken off the beach at Dunkirk and ferried across to England and safety.

COLMAN, HILA. *The Girl from Puerto Rico*. New York 16: William Morrow & Company, 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 222 pp. \$2.95. What was New York really like? Felicidad wondered. It was beautiful and safe in Puerto Rico, and she did not want to leave Fernando. Someday they might even be married. Yet when her brother Carlos talked about New York, she felt a great longing to go there. Then suddenly the decision was made. The family moved to New York, and Felicidad soon learned that the city of her dreams could not exist for her—not the exciting jobs or the fine apartment houses or the new friends she hoped to make.

COMMAGER, H. S. *The Great Constitution*. Indianapolis 7: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 730 N. Meridian Street. 1961. 128 pp. \$3.50. "We exhibit the novel and astonishing spectacle of a people deliberating on what form of government will be most conducive to their happiness." So wrote George Washington to an English friend as the people of the thirteen free Colonies considered the Constitution so recently presented to them. The book also tells of the need for a better government than was offered by the Articles of Confederation, of the triumph of reason over fear and pettiness in the secrecy of the convention hall, of the surprise of the people at the Convention's outcome, and how the states, one by one, fell into line to accept it.

CUTLER, C. C. *Greyhounds of the Sea*. Annapolis: United States Naval Institute. 1961. 592 pp. \$12.50; special price, as a set with *Queens of the Western Ocean*: \$20. "The story of the rise and decline of the American clipper ship is epic in quality, significance, and proportions." The clippers were at once the flower and symbol of all that was true and great and fine in a passing civilization. In them the varied threads of more than three centuries of the pioneer activities and hopes and aspirations of a world were woven into a pattern of surpassing beauty—an exquisite miniature, shadowing forth the soul of a civilization that was presently to disappear from the scene.

The men who played a part in that drama seem cast in an Homeric mould. Rough Viking voyages become leisurely pilgrimages in the ruthless light of the terrible man-killing drive of the clipper. Bold Elizabethan navigators lose something of color, matched with the seasoned clipper ship sailor, smashing his relentless way against masthead surges through inconceivable gales.

———. *Queens of the Western Ocean*. Annapolis: United States Naval Institute. 1961. 672 pp. \$12.50; special price, as set with *Greyhounds of the Sea*: \$20. This is a book about the American sailing packet ships, the businessmen who conceived them and won or lost fortunes on them, the captains and seamen who drove them through on schedule, and the buoyant spirit of pre-Civil War America which made possible the first real steps toward reliable, comfortable sea travel since the time of Columbus.

It is an account of how the American merchant marine, paced by the passenger liners, in the first half of the nineteenth century climaxed two centuries of unparalleled progress with a prodigious burst of speed, to overtake and bypass the greatest sea powers in history. "It is possible," says the author in his preface, "that an achievement ranking as one of the most noteworthy of all time, involved moral and intellectual forces nations can ill afford to neglect."

DAVIS, I. C.; JOHN BURNETT; and E. W. GROSS. *Life Science: The World of Living Things*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 400 pp. This text introduces students to formal science through exploration of plants and animals and man. This book offers a challenging experience in real science. The emphasis is upon basic principles

and concepts, each presented directly, simply, and one at a time. Each of the eleven units develops a single major area of life science, beginning with an introductory unit on the meaning of science, scientific attitudes, and scientific methods. The second unit deals with one of the unifying concepts of life science—the conservation of our natural resources, including especially plants, animals, and soil. The units on plants, animals, and insects emphasize the practical applications and economic aspects that are of particular interest to the junior high-school student. There are five units on man, in accordance with the assumption that seventh- and eighth-grade pupils are most interested in themselves.

The units are divided into sections A, B, C, and so on. Each one deals with a particular area of inquiry and solves a particular problem. Each unit begins with a preview which introduces the student to the topic he is about to study. Here, the historical background of the unit topic is treated. The illustrations that accompany each preview may become the subject for a special report. Included also are questions to direct study of each unit, a vocabulary list of the more important terms, suggested activities and demonstrations, and questions for review and discussions.

Correlating materials to accompany the book include: a teacher's manual and answer book (for the textbook), a workbook, a teacher's edition of the workbook with answers, one set of mastery tests free with each workbook purchased and a key to the mastery tests.

———, *Science: Discovery and Progress*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1957. 608 pp. Realizing that the nature and extent of the science taught in the elementary grades vary from school to school, and even within school systems, the authors have met this wide variation in student needs by providing in the nineteen units of this textbook a complete program covering the major areas of science. Allowing for the usual curriculum sequence, major emphasis is based on the physical sciences because few students will take further work in physics or chemistry. The biological areas are well represented by discussions of basic principles and applications which serve as a stepping stone for the many students whose high-school courses will include a full year of biology.

All the nineteen units are organized around a large problem based on a special division of subject matter. This large problem is then subdivided into smaller assignment sections lettered A, B, C, etc. Each topic in these sections is a learning problem, complete with its own questions. Insofar as the nature of the subject permits, the sections are arranged in order of difficulty, thereby providing a practical plan for differentiation.

Each unit begins with *Discovery and Progress*, which describes some of the major scientific discoveries or inventions. These are shown in line drawings on the facing page and illustrate pictorially what the text describes in words.

The *Questions to Direct the Study of This Unit* introduce the problems to be investigated and consists of actual questions which the authors' students have asked in the classroom. Each is answered completely in some part of the text of that unit. Following these questions is a list of *Words To Help You Understand This Unit*, comprising the important new scientific words and terms which appear in the text.

The supplementary materials which round out the complete program for science include *Directed Study Guide for Science*, a complete student workbook, as well as a set of mastery tests. An *Answer Book and Key to Tests* is

also available for teachers. For the textbook itself and the science course as a whole, the *Teachers Manual and Answer Book* is provided. This gives lesson plans, day-by-day assignments, answers to the questions, film lists, and many other useful hints for busy teachers.

DECKER, DUANE. *Rebel in Right Field*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 190 pp. \$2.95. The ball shot on a sinking line over second base into right field, and Danny Redd watched it as he charged. It was a treacherous line drive, and it was his or nobody's. Danny saw that he should dive for it; instead he stretched his glove, but he knew it had hit the turf a fraction of a second before. The umpire didn't see Danny trap the ball and called the play an out. Danny had apparently saved the inning, and he couldn't understand why manager Jug Slavin was angry about it.

DICKENS, CHARLES. *Hard Times*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 304 pp. 50¢. An indictment against the callous greed of the Victorian industrial society and its misapplied utilitarian philosophy.

DIGGINS, R. V., and C. E. BUNDY. *Dairy Production*, second edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 351 pp. \$5.50. The authors, realizing that new methods are constantly being introduced in livestock production and that the value of any publication in this field depends upon its being up-to-date, have revised this book. Suggestions from vocational agriculture instructors in several states were helpful. Research materials were obtained from many agricultural experiment stations. Practical dairymen, dairy cattle breeders, and college authorities were interviewed, and their contributions were of material assistance.

The authors have included only the information essential for practical dairy production; all technical and nonessential material has been eliminated. The style and terminology are simple, and the subject matter is comprehensible to those who have not had technical training in dairy husbandry. The material is systematically organized to facilitate finding the answers to practical dairy problems. The book contains many up-to-date pictures and charts, each having been carefully selected to convey specific data or practices.

Distressed Areas in a Growing Economy. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 711 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 80 pp. \$1. This is an outline of a comprehensive program for elimination of areas of chronic unemployment by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development (CED). This multi-phase CED program calls for such a variety of remedies as stepped up vocational training to prepare the chronically unemployed for new jobs in home areas or elsewhere; for subsistence during their retraining; more information in distressed regions about what jobs are available in other places; a general national effort to encourage reemployment of workers over 45 years of age; local efforts by management and labor to promote growth and improve competitive positions by lowering production costs; and the establishment of the Federal Reserve Development Corporations in each of the twelve Federal Reserve Districts to supplement state and private financing of new business ventures and necessary public facilities for stricken areas. In all, there were 16 specific recommendations in the remedial program.

DOLAN, E. F., JR. *White Battleground*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue South. 1961. 303 pp. \$3.50. *The Battleground*

is vast and terrifying. It stretches away in all directions before the eye of whoever ventures up the Atlantic to the forehead of the world. It has challenged men and their initiative and endurance since the days before Christ. This book tells the story of ten men who wanted to conquer that battleground. Some found death; some found victory; all found immortality.

DUBOIS, THEOFORA. *Rich Boy, Poor Boy*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 19 Union Square West. 1961. 186 pp. \$2.95. When Jane Murray first meets Patrick McGill, she thinks he's the nicest boy she's ever known in her fourteen years, and as she gets to know him better, she's sure of it. The fact that Janey has lost her mother and Patrick both his parents brings the two together from the start. Janey is horrified at the way Pat is treated like a poor relation by his uncle's family, the Barrows, with whom he is obliged to stay until time for him to go off to school in the fall. His cousins make fun of his Irish accent, and even the grownups seem to be unduly influenced by the boy's ragged appearance.

ELSNER, D. V. *Those Who Prey Together Slay Together*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. 35¢. A mystery story.

EVERY, D. V. *Forth to the Wilderness*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 381 pp. \$6. The most momentous event in early American history, with the exception of the Revolutionary War, was the crossing of the Appalachian mountain barrier. This was achieved by a small group of settlers who not only physically struggled over two hundred miles of forested mountains into a desolate wilderness, but also did so under the violent opposition of every great European power, every Indian nation, their own government, powerful land companies and trader combines, and most of their fellow countrymen.

Written with a novelist's skill and historian's accuracy, this book depicts one of the most important epochs in American history form its savage beginnings with the 21-year-old Washington's desperate winter journey to the eventual triumph which made a handful of backwoodsmen the principal architects of the size, shape, and form of the about-to-be United States.

EWEN, DAVID. *History of Popular Music*. New York 3: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 237 pp. \$1.50. This book begins with a discussion of the Psalms sung by the early colonists and carries its subject to progressive jazz, rock 'n' roll, and the hit musicals of 1960. It discusses, among other topics, the patriotic song, the sentimental ballad, the minstrel show, the operetta, and the development of jazz. The book deals not only with music, but also with the men who wrote it and the times that influenced it. To many readers it will bring back memories. It will bring to all readers a realization of the heritage of popular music in America.

FINDLAY, B. A. and E. B. *Your Magnificent Declaration*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. \$2.20, clothbound; \$1.20, paperbound. This book is a textbook on our Declaration of Independence. Included is an introduction, a discussion of the preamble to the Declaration, a discussion of the specific charges made against King George III in the Declaration as applied to the present day, a bibliography, the complete text of the Declaration, and the names of the signers by colonies.

The First Book of Teaching Machines. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 56 pp. \$1.95. This book tells of one of the ways of increasing speed and thoroughness of learning—teaching machines.

FITZSIMMONS, CLEO. *Consumer Buying for Better Living*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue South. 1961. 554 pp. This text examines those aspects of economic theory that are related to consumption and to the buyer's use of the market in obtaining consumer goods. The author equates buying with a way of living (to the extent that purchases can provide it). The author shows how theory is related to practice in consumer buying, and conveys an understanding of the function of markets and desirable management and buying procedures.

The book is divided into two main parts. It first considers both the theoretical and observable aspects of the economic system in which consumers operate. Particular stress is placed on markets, which are described in terms of their varieties and uses, their relation to the consumer group, and marketing arrangements that affect the purchase of goods (including display, advertising, and credit). Several other topics of importance to the consumer are discussed in this section—production, demand, and organizations that provide consumer information and protection.

The second half of the book deals with the problems and procedures of consumer buying for nine classifications of goods. Food, housing, clothing, household operating goods, furniture, and equipment are discussed. An unusual inclusion is the treatment of requisites for health, recreation, transportation, and protection as types of goods that are bought and used.

FOULKE, A. T. *Mr. Typewriter*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Avenue. 1961. 134 pp. \$3.75. The name of Christopher Latham Sholes may be listed among the "unsung heroes" of the nineteenth century. Probably very few would recognize the name of this self-effacing, little-known inventor of the indispensable typewriter, yet his was one of the most important contributions to the modern world. Unlike other great inventors of his time, very little has been written about the life of Christopher Sholes. Thus in this volume, the author gives a chronological chart of highlights in the development of the typewriter, while placing emphasis on its inventor, his personal life and work, rather than exclusively on the evolution of the typewriter—all in an attempt to produce for the first time in one complete volume an authentic, well-founded picture, and to lift from obscurity the name of Christopher Latham Sholes.

FRANCIS, H. D. *Football Flash*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 128 pp. \$2.95. Thirteen-year-old Oliver Hunter III, commonly known as Flash, did not get his nickname from his classy play on the football field. In fact, even though Flash's father was a coach and the boy had all kinds of chances to learn football, there was some question as to whether he was really good. His friends thought he was good; Flash himself knew he ought to be good, but he also knew he wasn't. He knew he had bluffed his way through what informal training and backyard play he had had in grade school—but now in junior high school he was faced with a real football program.

GARNER, ALAN. *The Weirdestone*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 224 pp. \$2.95. The Weirdestone of Brisingamen is a magic stone which by its magic binds in sleep a band of knights until the day should come when they must wake to fight Nastrond the spirit of Evil, and all his forces. But the wizard whose duty it is to guard the stone and the sleeping knights has lost it. This tale the wizard himself tells two children, Colin and Susan, who are staying with a local farmer and his wife.

GENDRON, VAL. *The Dragon Tree*. New York 18: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 214 pp. \$3.95. The author presents the life of Alexander von Humboldt, scientist, explorer, statesman. Penetrating research is reflected in the delineation of facts and details, but more significantly in the objective over-all view of the man. The strange dragon tree ironically nurtured in the Botanical Gardens of Berlin symbolized for Alexander the unknown mysteries of the world, mysteries which he vowed one day to solve. Unable to bind an amazing intellect to one subject of specialization, von Humboldt made original contributions in such areas as zoology, physiology, botany, astronomy, geology, and oceanography. His travels to Mexico, the tropics, and South America led to many anthropological discoveries as well.

GIACHINO, J. W., and R. O. GALLINGTON. *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, revised. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 848 East 58th Street. 1961. 240 pp. The purpose of this book is to provide some of the more fundamental principles of writing a practical course of study. Since courses in industrial arts and vocational education have many things in common, even though their basic philosophies differ, the principles described will apply to both of these instructional areas. The material should be of considerable value to students majoring in industrial arts and vocational education as well as to teachers and administrators who are currently in the field and must of necessity continually prepare or revise their courses.

The practices presented in the text are the result of many years of experience in assisting students and teachers to plan and organize instructional activities for their classes. Actually the book represents the thinking of many individuals.

GOLDSMITH, OLIVER. *The Vicar of Wakefield*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 192 pp. 50¢. Describes the trials and triumphs that befall a simple village vicar.

GREENE, J. C. *The Death of Adam*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 384 pp. 95¢. This book shows how growth in the physical science, how solving the mystery of buried bones and fossils, and how inquiry into the solar system and animal species brought about spiritual and philosophical unrests in the century and a half from Newton to Darwin.

GRICE, FREDERICK. *Out of the Mines: The Story of a Pit Boy*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 177 pp. \$2.95. When Dick and his older brother, Kit Ullathorne, secretly went down into the boarded-up mine, they did not know they would start a rumor. But old Jossie, whose pickax they had to use when he was not looking, spread the word that ghosts had taken his tool. It was a serious thing, the old man's not being able to scrounge a little coal any more—but then life in the Durham colliery was always serious.

HARDIN, GARRETT. *Nature and Man's Fate*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 328 pp. 75¢. A distinguished biologist presents a study of evolution, heredity, and the future of man.

HARKINS, PHILIP. *Fight Like a Falcon*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 223 pp. \$2.95. "One coffee on the double!" Neal obeyed as fast as he could. He poured and passed, and tried to eat his dinner between orders from the upperclassmen.

He vowed that someday, as a Falcon on the Air Force Academy football team, he would make up for these indignities by fulfilling the promise he had shown in the final minutes of his last high-school game. After that game, a visiting Air Force cadet had given Neal the idea of trying to qualify for the Academy, and he had done everything on the double ever since.

HAWTHORNE, NATHANIEL. *The House of the Seven Gables*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 288 pp. 50¢. Here is a paperback of that ever famous classic.

HENDERSON, K. B., and R. E. PINGRY. *Using Mathematics 7*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 496 pp. plus 64-page *Teacher Edition*. \$4.20. In line with trends toward a more modern curriculum, this edition includes some important topics of modern mathematics. Sets are introduced in the first chapter and are used at appropriate places throughout the book. In the first chapter the pupils learn the meaning of the important ideas: empty set, equivalent sets, identical sets, and union of sets. Addition of whole numbers is related to the concept of union of sets.

Various notations for numbers are presented in Chapter 14. Notations for numbers using place notation but with bases other than ten are treated. Binary notation, which is used in modern high-speed electronic computers, is also included. Some important properties of numbers, including the treatment of prime numbers, greatest common divisor, least common multiple, and properties of divisibility by various numbers, are covered in Chapter 15.

All the new topics are suitable for modern uses and developments. The new topics incorporate application and provide drill upon important basic mathematical operations and ideas. The application and drill are thus placed in a new and exciting context although pupils are still required to use the mathematics they have learned in the traditional program.

The teacher may secure one of the books with a 64-page *Teacher's Edition* bound in. Here are many helps for the teacher. The teacher's edition also has the answers to each of the problems in the text written in red ink at each problem. Book 8, *Using Mathematics 8* (1961. 496 pages, plus 64-page *Teacher Edition* \$4.20), for a second-year course, is also constructed on the same principal as Book 7.

Hi Neighbor. New York 22: Hastings House Publishers, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 72 pp. \$2.95. This book, the fourth in a series about the UNICEF tells about youth in India, Guinea, Poland, Iran, and Mexico. It also points out some of the health problems of these countries. A tie-up with the Trick-or-Treating program of UNICEF at Halloween.

Hitler's Secret Conversations. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 672 pp. 75¢. Here are some of the secret conversations of Hitler from 1941 to 1944.

HORKHEIMER, M. F., and J. W. DIFFOR, editors and compilers. *Educators Guide to Free Films*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1961. 648 pp. \$9. The twenty-first annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service, on these newer educational media. This *Film Guide* will enable the schoolman to bring to the boys and girls of his community many experiences unavailable by any other means. This edition replaces all volumes and supplements which have preceded it. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of free films—bringing compiled information on free films for immediate use,

within the covers of a single book. Many films "rented" to schools by other agencies are free from sources in this *Film Guide*.

For educational as well as financial reasons, free films from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum. Dr. John Guy Fowlkes adds an article on films to education. His review of the recognition, both by industry and education, of the importance of the materials of learning and teaching, particularly the newer educational media, should be of special interest to school administrators and librarians everywhere. This twenty-first annual edition lists 4,339 titles of films, 683 of which were not listed in the previous edition. All new titles are starred.

———. *Educators Guide to Free Filmstrips*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1961. 171 pp. (8½" x 10¾") \$6. This thirteenth annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service on filmstrips and slides. This service is devoted entirely to free filmstrips and free slides. It is a complete, annotated schedule of these newer educational media—bringing the compiled information on free filmstrips and free slides for immediate use, within the covers of a single book. For educational as well as financial reasons, free filmstrips and free slides from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered, and continue to render, a valuable contribution to the curriculum, by supplying information not available elsewhere.

This annual edition lists 626 titles, including 51 sets of slides. In 1946, only 82 free filmstrips were available. Since that time, the quality as well as the number of free filmstrips and slides has made most significant gains. Of the 626 titles, 125 were not listed in the twelfth edition. All new titles are starred (*). All told more than 40,000 separate frames or pictures, or miniature posters, from 95 different sources are included. Twenty-six of the filmstrips listed in this *Guide* may be retained permanently by the borrower, to start his filmstrip library, or to add to his present library.

IRWIN, J. V., and MARJORIE ROSENBERGER. *Modern Speech*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 575 pp. A classroom textbook for secondary schools that fosters the development of effective speech as a personal skill. Explicit and easy-to-understand ground rules for various speaking situations are reinforced by specific examples and provocative speaking activities.

This book is divided into 5 units. Each unit is further organized under chapter area totaling 22 chapters. Chapter titles are as follows: Communicating, Getting Acquainted, Improving Conversation, Listening to Others, Listening to Yourself, Improving Pronunciation, Believing in Yourself, Planning with a Purpose, Selecting a Subject, Finding Material, Outlining the Body of Your Speech, Introducing and Concluding Your Speech, Speaking on Special Occasions, Delivering Your Speech, Speaker's Kit, Conducting a Meeting, Starting a Club, Discussing, Debating, Reading Aloud, Speaking in Chorus, Dramatizing, Speaking on Radio and Television, and Acknowledgments. Included also is an index. Accompanying the text is a *Teacher's Manual* which indicates how to adapt the course to specific needs: (1) for junior high-school classes; (2) for a one-semester course; (3) for a one-year course; (4) for a two-year course. Specific suggestions guide the analysis of a teaching situation and the development of personal skills of individual students.

———. *Preparing and Presenting a Speech*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 175 pp. This book is

composed of the following seven chapters: Planning with a Purpose, Selecting a Subject, Finding Material, Outlining the Body of Your Speech, Introducing and Concluding Your Speech, Speaking on Special Occasions, Delivering Your Speech. Also included is a speaker's kit and an index.

JACKSON, C. P. *Pro Hockey Comeback*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 148 pp. \$2.95. Professional hockey is a rough, tough sport as Marty Burke found out when he left North City College to join the Falcon Hockey Club. His coach's parting words were, "It's been a real pleasure to have you on my squad. You're a hockey player, a natural. You can play on anybody's team."

JAEGER, ELOISE. *Archery*. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc., 419 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. \$1.95. This book, an introduction to the bow-and-arrow, explains concisely and with clear text all of the techniques, rules and intricacies of the sport, even delving into its history. The book has been approved by the National Field Archery Association.

JEFFERIS, BARBARA. *Solo for Several Players*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, 425 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 128 pp. \$3.25. The plane was a hundred feet in the air before Janet Osborne knew anything was wrong. She had opened her eyes—they were always clenched tight during take-off—and had turned to smile at Dick, a smile of relief at still being alive . . . and then screamed when she saw the empty seat. . . .

On the ground, Dick Garnett picked himself up off the runway and stared helplessly after the tiny Tri-pacer that was carrying his fiancée up over the trees. He shouted instructions that he knew she could never hear . . . signaled frantically . . . and then raced to the phone. Thus begins this gripping story of nerve-tingling suspense. . . one that has a small group of people combining their every effort to guide to safety a panic-stricken girl.

JOY, C. R. *Young People of East Asia and Australia*. Des Moines 2: Meredith Press, 1716 Locust Street. 1961. 183 pp. \$3.50. The author's approach to an understanding of everyday life in other lands is original, informative, fascinating. Like his two earlier books, this book is the fruit of years of travel and the most painstaking kind of research and reporting. In it the young people of ten regions of East Asia and Australia tell in their own words the facts about their way of life: families, homes, education, food, recreation, and other interests.

KASTNER, ERICH. *Emil and the 3 Twins*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 251 pp. \$2.95. Emil and his detective colleagues—Gustav, the Professor, and Little Tuesday (not to mention their one girl helper, Pony Hutchen)—were invited to the Professor's house for a visit. What engaged the talents of this interesting threesome this time was how to foil Mr. Byron—chief acrobat of the tumbling troop he falsely called "The Three Twins." Once the grownups (the Professor's mother and father, Emil's jiggety little Grandma, and Emil's cousin) were out of the way, the boys went into action.

———. *The 35th of May*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. When young Conrad had to write an essay about the South Seas, he got help from an unexpected source—a circus horse who was a champion roller skater (temporarily out of work) and who took to Conrad and Conrad's jolly joker of an uncle, Uncle Ringel. Right through the magic door of the wardrobe they all went, straight into adventure, on their way to the South Seas.

———. *When I Was a Boy*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 187 pp. \$3.95. "There are memories we always carry around with us like lucky coins." It is the famed author of *Emil and the Detectives* who speaks, looking back to his childhood in old Dresden.

KENNEDY, J. R. *Short Term*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 544 pp. 75¢. A story about Wall Street and a man who gambles his fortune and his future for a woman's love.

KINNEY, L. B.; G. W. BROWN; and M. R. BLYTHE. *Holt Arithmetic: Book 1*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 443 pp. This book is designed to lead students in Grade 7 beyond elementary-school number work toward the more advanced mathematics of high school. Problem situations geared to young people's present interests illustrate the importance of mathematics as a language and extend their knowledge of our number system into the area of per cent.

In his study of arithmetic, the junior high-school pupil is expected to achieve important results in several related areas: (1) to develop additional skill in problem solving, and ability to apply this skill to an increasing extent in situations currently important to him; (2) to improve his skill in the fundamental computations, and to improve it as necessary for learning to use percentage; (3) to develop an understanding of percentage, and the ability to apply it in familiar situations; (4) to increase his understanding and use of important means for expressing mathematical idea, including graphs, tables, and formulas; (5) to expand his understanding and appreciation of form, size, and position in his environment.

Throughout this book, special attention is given to the study of these steps and testing of the ability of the pupil to use them in a problem unit, including: oral exercises on problems that offer a minimum of computational difficulty, affording an economical, interesting, and effective means for teaching the pupil how to use a systematic approach; a problem scale to test the ability to solve problems related to materials covered in the chapter; practice on the problem steps, consisting of problems that, while they ordinarily provide practice on all the steps, place particular emphasis on ability to handle a particular one of them. In the latter part of the text, special help is given in the development of a systematic analysis of percentage problems.

Part One of each chapter test provides a survey of the computations stressed in the chapter, and tests the degree of mastery attained by each pupil in those computations. At regular intervals a cumulative test provides opportunity to identify pupils who need to review materials covered in the earlier chapters. This method is preferred by teachers who have used it, and is supported by special *Stop light tests* and practice exercises on computations with percentage. Part Two of the chapter test includes vocabulary, information, formulas, and work with graphs covered in the chapter. Correlating materials for this book include: a teacher's manual with answers and basic solutions, a workbook and a teacher's manual for it; and tests and a key to the tests.

———. *Holt Arithmetic: Book 2*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 528 pp. Designed to complete students' preparation for high-school mathematics courses, this book 2 goes right on from book 1 with an intensified study of problem-solving techniques. Problem situations geared to young people's current interests illustrate the importance of mathematics as a language. Brief and unified previews of alge-

bra and geometry show these more advanced topics as extensions of previous experience with plane and solid figures and with simple formulas.

The fact that the eighth-grade pupil is preparing to enter secondary school calls attention to the *transitional* function of the mathematics course at this level. He must be taught to reorganize what he has learned informally about algebra and geometry and must be provided with exploratory units in these areas without "skimming the cream" from the secondary courses. This function may be broken down into these objectives: (1) to extend his understanding of form, size, and position to include geometric constructions and some understanding of the uses and characteristics of triangles, including the Pythagorean relationships; (2) to develop further his ability to interpret and utilize various adult means for expressing mathematical ideas; (3) to understand units of measure, and how measurements are made—indirect as well as direct; (4) to incorporate the techniques of algebra, and especially the equation, into his problem-solving procedures; (5) to explore the nature of algebra and geometry, and also his own interest and abilities in those fields.

To make such transition possible, and convenient, for the teacher, several special features have been incorporated in the text. *Maintenance of the Computational Skills* is a carefully planned program to help maintain the computational skills at the level necessary for their effective application. The following features are designed to meet this requirement:

Stop light tests are spaced at proper intervals to identify pupils who need practice on each of the fundamental operations. Practice exercises are keyed to the *Stop light tests* in such a way that each pupil is directed to the kind of practice material he needs. The boxed examples accompanying the practice exercises provide models of proper procedures in working the practice exercises.

For pupils not requiring drill on a given operation, the *Experts' Corner* provides a challenging topic, which needs little guidance from the teacher and may be omitted by the rest of the class without interrupting the sequence of the chapter. Additional regular check-ups on computational skills are provided in the chapter tests, and the cumulative tests. Correlating materials for this book include: a teacher's manual with answers and basic solutions, a workbook and a teacher's manual for it; and, tests and a key to the tests.

KLAPERMAN, L. M. *The Scholar Fighter: The Story of Saadia Gaon*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, Jewish Publication Society, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 189 pp. \$2.95. Saadia ben Joseph was one of the spiritual geniuses of Jewish history and a towering figure of the tenth century. He was forced to leave his beloved wife and son in order to follow a trail stretching across ancient Egypt through Palestine and Babylonia. At the end of this road lay the Gaonite, the leadership of the Jews. With his trusted man servant, Mustafa, and his faithful companion, Rabbi Abraham, Saadia beats off an Arab ambush, solves the mystery of a plague that threatens to destroy a Syrian city, and pits his courage against power-hungry David ben Zakkai, Prince of the Exile.

KOESTLER, ARTHUR. *Darkness at Noon*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 224 pp. 50¢. This story of a strong and dedicated man who was destroyed by the dictator state he had helped to create was an outstanding Broadway hit, won the New York Drama Critics Circle Award for the best American play of the season, and was highly acclaimed as a television production.

LAO TZU. *The Hsiao Ching*. Jamaica, New York: St. John's University Press. 1961. 81 pp. \$3.50. An ancient dialogue between Confucius and his disciple Tseng Tzu, this book presents the most elemental social and religious concept of the Chinese people—family loyalty. A classic of great significance for our times, this philosophical conversation is one of the deepest revelations of the soul of China. The doctrine of filiality was probably written between 350-200 B.C., but it is ascribed to the testaments of Confucius in the sixth century before Christ.

— *Tao Teh Ching*. Jamaica, New York: St. John's University Press. 1961. 131 pp. \$3.50. This is one of the most translated Chinese books. Told in epigrams in only five thousand words, these teachings nevertheless contain such profound truths as to have influenced deeply all Chinese thinking and fascinated a great many Western scholars. His teachings on the power of love and humility and non-contention are very much akin to the spirit of the Sermon on the Mount. Each little saying, when properly understood and appreciated by the reader's own perception of the higher truths, is fraught with meaning.

LATINI, ANGELA. *Za the Truffle Boy*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. \$2.95. Truffling was, Za admitted, a lot of fun. They would set off by moonlight and walk across country until they came at dawn to the truffle woods. Here Mosca, the black pig, would root about in the soil until he found the fragrant truffles. Then Za and his grandmother would push Mosca aside and gather as many as they could.

LAWRENCE, MILDRED. *Forever and Always*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 191 pp. \$3. The cold fact was that Russ had gone out of her life. In an effort to "busy" herself during the long, bleak summer ahead, she began to help out at a small museum housed in a turn-of-the-century mansion on a once fashionable island off the southeastern coast. Involvement in the research work a friendly college junior was doing there and in the doings of a suspicious character running the nearby marina drew Mindy into new interests so that—by summer's end—she had a newly acquired perspective on her own life.

LEA, H. C. *The Inquisition of the Middle Ages*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 920 pp. \$10. Miss Margaret Nicholson decided to abridge Lea's *History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages* not only because of its absorbing intrinsic interest, but also because of parallels to modern problems—especially the effort to suppress individual liberty of thought and action, both for political and religious reasons. "With a few exceptions," she says, "such as the Luciferans and the fanatic Dolcinists, and the militant and inspired Joan of Arc, the heretics were peaceable, soberly religious people, quietly practicing the principles they believed in. But they were a threat to the established order and were ruthlessly exterminated by fair means and foul (the inquisitors made no pretense of hiding their conviction that it was unnecessary to keep faith with those who 'kept no faith with God'—God being, in their eyes, his vicar in the Holy See). Consequently, all legal protection afforded to criminals of the worst sort was denied to those who in any way differed from 'the Faith.'" This book, originally published in 1888 in three volumes, is the classic authority on the subject. It covers the period from the twelfth century to the middle of the sixteenth.

LENSSEN, HEIDI. *Art and Anatomy*. New York 3: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 80 pp. \$1.75. Into this volume the author has

attempted to compress the essentials of human anatomy needed by the artist. Bearing in mind that a knowledge of anatomy, however useful, is but one of the manifold experiences important to the artist's work, the author has tried to exclude all non-essentials. The doctor will desire many other details which the artist can afford to pass over. This book is primarily for the artist who is portraying people—who is aware that all human expressions and motions are based upon the physical movements of muscles and bones, and who would like a source to which he can refer for ready information.

LEWIS, W. D. *Shakespeare Said It*. Syracuse 10: Syracuse University Press, Box 87, University Station. 1961. 359 pp. \$6.50 This volume provides a topical reference to selections from Shakespeare's works. Topic headings from ABSENCE to YOUTH, arranged in alphabetical order, are followed by selected quotations from the works. An extensive index provides thorough cross references to alternate headings.

One feature of this volume is the inclusion of complete or condensed scenes; significant passages are repeated under appropriate topic headings. Footnotes to selections supply explanations for archaic or unfamiliar words, phrases, and sentences. These notes are placed conveniently after each entry.

MACHETANZ, SARA. *The Howl of the Malemute*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 204 pp. \$3.95. Some people choose adventure, others have it thrust upon them. Already living in Alaska and familiar with its sternly beautiful wilderness, its harsh weather and its friendly people, Sara and Fred Machetanz chose to spend a winter in the northernmost part of our 49th state. They planned to make a movie of the life of a sled dog from the time he is born until he runs in a team. The idea had come to them after Seegoo, a malemute puppy, had picked them out for his own. Leaving their log cabin in Matanuska Valley, they flew to Unalakleet on the Bering Sea. There, in September, Seegoo and "Mrs. Seegoo" presented them with nine sled-dog puppies, which provided an all-star cast.

McKNOW, ROBIN. *Washington's America*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 96 pp. \$2.50. The author points out that the name of George Washington is probably the most famous ever. Yet the man himself is scarcely known, his life story surrounded by ignorance and myth. This book is an account of the life and times of the man, showing him a human of many moods, as capable of self-pity as he was possessed of an iron will. He was a gentleman, but not a "gentleman farmer." If a plow broke down, he was likely to repair it himself. He helped mix manure, kill hogs, and pitch hay. This despite the fact that wife Martha, widow of wealthy Daniel Parke Custis, had enough money to keep them in comfort for several lifetimes. Washington was determined to make Mount Vernon pay its own way.

The fighting spirit within Washington came to the fore at an early age. At 22, already a Lieutenant Colonel in the Virginia Militia, Washington led troops into disputed territory. A French patrol was encountered, shots were exchanged, men killed and the French and Indian Wars were officially underway. A jubilant Washington wrote: "I heard the bullets whistle and, believe me, there is something charming in the sound."

MEAD, MARGARET. *New Lives for Old*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 480 pp. 95¢. What happens when a Stone Age culture comes into contact with and tries to duplicate twentieth century life.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. *Kent Barstow: Space Man*. Des Moines 2: Meredith Press, 1716 Locust Street. 1961. 148 pp. \$3. The hottest jet pilot of them all, Captain Kent Barstow of the United States Air Force, is tapped for emergency duty, beginning with a speedy course of astronaut training. Not included in this training program is the strange girl he meets on a plane—is she as innocent as she seems? . . . and who is the mysterious voyager in space? Captain Barstow's job is to intercept the unidentified spaceship and find out.

MULLER, H. J. *The Loom of History*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 502 pp. 95¢. Traces the rise and fall of civilization in the storied cities of Asia Minor. Contains 16 pages of photographs.

NATHAN, A. G. *Lincoln's America*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 96 pp. \$2.50. This book presents the total picture of developments in the United States during Lincoln's lifetime and the part he played in them. The various forces—economic, social, emotional—that resulted in the secession and the bloody war are explained in a simple style suitable for younger readers, whose knowledge may be limited to the familiar slogans and famous landmarks that hardly scratch the surface.

In hindsight, Mrs. Lincoln's belief that Abe would some day be President takes on an aura of inevitability. Yet her taking him as her mate was remarkable indeed and scarcely understood by her friends of society. She was rich, popular, moved in fashionable circles, spoke French—in short, was many levels above the backwoodsman who managed to tromp on her feet and tear her expensive gown the very first time they danced. Mary Todd was perceptive, to say the least.

NICHOLS, E. D., and W. G. COLLINS. *Modern Elementary Algebra*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 412 pp. The contemporary viewpoint of this textbook brings the exciting element of discovery into the first-year algebra classroom. This first course in algebra arouses in students a desire to find out what algebra is all about, why algebraic principles function as they do, how these principles can be used. Students are introduced to the basic concepts of sets in the first chapter. These concepts are used throughout the book, because they serve well to clarify other algebraic concepts and to unify the subject of algebra. The language of sets provides a way of expressing many mathematical relations.

Throughout, there is emphasis on reasoning, discovery, and justification of algebraic processes through basic principles. The *why* and *how* of mathematical processes are given serious attention. At the end of each chapter, there is a summary of vocabulary, chapter review exercises, and a chapter test. Beginning with Chapter 2, there are also included cumulative review exercises. These provide the necessary practice materials to keep alive all of the important concepts developed up to that point. In addition, chapter tests and cumulative tests are available in a supplementary booklet.

The familiar concepts of arithmetic or the previously introduced algebraic concepts are consistently used as a springboard for introduction of new concepts. The student makes up word problems to fit given equations, followed by a reversal of the process. This pedagogical device has resulted in much greater proficiency of students in solving word problems. The correlating materials for this course include: a *Teacher's Manual* with answers and basic solutions, tests, and a key to the tests.

O'CONNOR, FLANNERY. *The Violent Bear it Away*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 160 pp. 50¢. This is the story of the lives of a southern family.

PAULI, HERTHA. *The First Christmas Tree*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 24 pp. \$2.95. This imaginative story gives new meaning to the old custom of decorating a tree at Christmastime and brings to life a famous legend about the Christ Child. It tells of a ragged little stranger who sought shelter in a forester's cottage one Christmas Eve hundreds of years ago in the snow-covered Black Forest. As the forester's children, Peter and Marie, shared their meager supper with the boy, the simple room seemed to grow brighter. Grateful for their kindness, he told the children a bedtime story about the humble little spruce tree that, showered with stars, brought joy to the Christ Child in Bethlehem.

POOL, ELIZABETH. *The Unexpected Messiah*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 310 pp. \$5. This book is a retelling and interpretation of the Bible story, beginning with Moses and continuing through the life of Jesus to the ministry of Paul and the early days of the Church in Rome.

RAMSEY, W. L., and R. E. BURCKLEY. *Modern Earth Science*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 640 pp. The plan of the book is first to establish the position of earth in the known universe through an introductory unit on astronomy. This is followed by a consideration of the general nature of the earth as a planet. Before the detailed study of surface features and the forces that shape them, a unit is given to consideration of the substances known to make up the earth's crust. The student is helped to recognize the role of chemistry in the earth sciences by the inclusion in this unit of a chapter on basic chemistry. Following the two units dealing with the major land forms and their origins, a unit is devoted to the earth's history as revealed by the fossil record. The concluding units deal with the liquid and gaseous portions of the earth—the water supply and the atmosphere. A final unit is concerned with a brief study of the causes and distribution of the world's climates, which are of such importance in regulating the lives of the earth's inhabitants.

To assist students in mastery of technical terms associated with the discussion, each chapter opening includes a vocabulary list. Technical terms are printed in boldface or italics where they occur in the text and are clearly defined. At the end of each chapter, the vocabulary is reviewed in a section which the student may use as a self-quiz to test his understanding. A complete glossary also appears at the back of the book. In addition to the vocabulary review at the end of each chapter, there are two groups of questions. Those in Group A are based directly on the text and may be used as a self-quiz by the student. The questions in Group B are more difficult and often require interpretation of the text material. At the conclusion of each unit there are unit review questions and a group of suggestions for activities and further reading to guide students who can make a broader study of the topics covered in the unit. Whenever appropriate, U. S. Geological Survey topographic sheets illustrating land forms discussed are listed at the end of a chapter. For those teachers who wish to carry farther the study of minerals and land forms, an appendix includes a map showing the physiographic provinces of the United States and a key for the identification of minerals.

RANCK, J. A. *Education for Mission*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 160 pp. \$2.95. The author's loyalty and sensitivity to the local church are evident throughout the book. At the outset, he explains what is happening in world Christianity in terms of its meaning to individual Christians and their congregations. A clear statement of the theology of mission is part of this explanation.

After relating these concerns to the familiar features of church life, the author pays special attention to developing a sound relationship between education for mission and general Christian education. He deals with curriculum and with special opportunities for mission education. There are thorough and helpful chapters on leadership, resources, and evaluation. The closing pages summon the people of churches everywhere to an encompassing personal dedication to the Christian mission.

RANDALL, JANET. *Saddles for Breakfast*. New York 18: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 186 pp. \$3.25. Robin Marshall was delighted at the chance to have a respite from her large, befuddling family and take a summer job at her cousin's riding academy in California. What she found was a far cry from her expectations. For reasons she could not fathom at first, the place had lost its former prestige. The fences needed mending, the horses needed currying, and its clientele needed to be won back. To make it worse, Robin's surly cousin, Butch, showed nothing but enmity toward her, and Cora, his mother, distrusted her ability to handle the horses or do anything beyond household chores.

RASWAN, CARL. *Drinkers of the Wind*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 19 Union Square West. 1961. 160 pp. \$3.50. This is a story of high adventure—the kind of adventure that almost every boy or girl would love to have lived. What makes this story particularly exciting is that it actually happened to the author. When he was a small boy living in Austria, he fell in love with a picture of a beautiful Arabian horse which hung above his bed. He resolved that when he grew up he would have such a horse for his own.

RHODE, R. B., and F. H. McCALL. *Press Photography*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 256 pp. \$6. This is a book for working newsmen whose assignments run from spot news to food and fashion photography. It offers valuable professional advice on camera operation and effective composition; use of lenses, filter, f-stops and shutter speeds; lighting techniques; editing; and choice of film and printing papers—surveys the newest developments in the news-photo field: ROP color, the trend to small reflex-type cameras, new fast-developing and printing processes. Sixty photos by America's top news photographers are included.

RIEDMAN, S. R. *Trailblazer of American Science*. Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally & Company, 8255 Central Park Avenue. 1961. 224 pp. \$3.50. Joseph Henry was a fascinating person who led an adventurous scientific life, about which much too little is known. Nothing had been written about him for young people, until the author became interested in him as a subject for one of her sympathetic, understanding, scientific biographies. She has presented a well-rounded picture of the man and his times and has, at the same time, given brilliant thumbnail sketches of his contemporaries all over the world.

ROBERTS, E. M. *The Great Meadow*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 208 pp. 50¢. The trek of the American pioneer toward the wilderness in the 1770's is the

theme of this paperback. The story centers around a young married couple from Virginia who settled in Kentucky.

ROBERTS, J. D. *Bears, Bibles and a Boy*. New York 3: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 55 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 256 pp. \$3.95. Jesse David was the third son of his father, a Bible reader and a noted Adirondack bear trapper who could set a trap to outwit the wariest bear. In this book, the author tells of his father's lively experiences, and admits the fears of a small boy who was not quite sure that the bearskins in the woodshed would not come alive again. There is the story of Father's first encounter with a bear, when he was armed only with an ax; of the search for the elusive ghost bear; of old Yellow Tusk; and of Father's gallant dogs.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *Center-Field Jinx*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 220 pp. \$2.95. Jerry Connor of the New York Bombers had just hit a popup to the infield, and he couldn't bear to look at the stricken faces of his teammates. Jerry was in a batting slump. He knew a club should not be affected by the performance of a single man, but all the other Bombers were in batting slumps too. And everyone was blaming the team's losing streak on him.

SHEHAN, L. P. *English Can Be Easy*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1960. 368 pp. This book is organized into six units: Sentences, nouns, pronouns, verbs, modifiers, and parts of a sentence. Each unit is organized into topics and problems—a total of 36 topics and 100 problems. Also included is a score sheet for entering the pupil's score on each problem; a section, "extra credit problems," of 153 pages of extra work on each of the 100 problems, and a score sheet for these extra problems; and 4 pages with space for the pupil to enter 200 words that he has misspelled.

SORENSEN, E. J. *Felipe's Long Journey: A Story of the Andes*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 117 pp. \$2.95. The journey was arduous and often discouraging, and Llamacita Felipe's pet was sometimes a worry. But there were new friends and many adventures, and in the end both the little llama and the little copper dishes played an important part in the fortunes of Felipe and Tomaso.

SPENCE, HARTZELL. *The Clergy and What They Do*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 205 pp. \$3.95. Seldom is there a dull moment in the clergy, for clergymen of all faiths have a never-ending variety of dedicated work to do. According to your skills and where you may be needed most, a wide choice of jobs are open to you as young men and women entering the ministry of God. Perhaps you can serve best as an evangelist or a missionary in foreign lands. Perhaps you can serve better as a pastor of a small church, or as a part of a team of ministers in a large city.

Sports Illustrated Book of Tennis. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1961. 96 pp. \$2.95. In this book, William F. Talbert, former captain of the U. S. Davis Cup team, and the editors of *Sports Illustrated* demonstrate the game of tennis. Don Budge analyzes the strokes and the game; William F. Talbert and Nancy Talbert demonstrate mixed doubles; and Earl Buchholz and Chuck McKinley, the game of doubles. The instruction covers tactics of offensive and defensive play, with diagrams of singles, doubles, and mixed doubles strategy. The book is printed in two colors and is illustrated throughout by Ed Vebell and Robert Riger.

Sterling Guide to Summer Jobs. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc., 419 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. \$2.50. This book covers many

aspects of the job situation, from positions paying the highest wages to those that compensate for lower pay with valuable experience for a future career. Outlining many job possibilities—jobs that involve travel, working with people, selling jobs, and unusual temporary jobs—this guide both tells the duties each job entails and the qualifications the discriminating employer is seeking. Included also is a chapter on job etiquette and the do's and don'ts of employment procedures.

TOLSTOY, ALEXEY. *Peter the First*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 760 pp. 95¢. This is an epic novel of a headstrong ruler who changed Russia from an isolated Asiatic empire into a world power.

TOLSTOY, LEO. *The Cossacks and the Raid*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 224 pp. 50¢. The hero of this story is a young man who squandered half his fortune—and his life—and retires to the desultory existence of a regiment stationed in mountainous Cossack country.

TONNE, H. A. *Principles of Business Education*, third edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 544 pp. \$6.50. This is a substantial revision of the popular "principles" book in the *Gregg Professional Series* that effectively presents a complete overview of principles, problems, procedures, and practices in the field of business training. It helps bring depth, imagination, and perspective to classroom teaching through new ideas, statistics, and recent developments in modern business education. It contains many new and refined ideas and methods that will bring results today—and in the brand new era of business education that lies ahead. It covers such vital modern issues as the Conant report, the science and mathematics stampede, guidance and standards in business education, and attitudes of business and labor towards business education.

The first fifteen chapters are concerned with what business education is and its relationship to the total process of education, including the *mores* and standards set up by educators and business personnel. The remaining seventeen chapters deal with developing courses of study, training for different business occupations, the kinds of business programs found in various institutions, and the administration and supervision of business education.

TRINKLEIN, F. E., and C. M. HUFFER. *Modern Space Science*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 558 pp. This text is written with the assumption that the student has completed a year or more of science at the junior high-school level and that his mathematical preparation includes a year of algebra. All mathematical skills required beyond this level are carefully explained in the *Appendix*.

The book contains a number of instructional devices which are helpful to both teacher and student. Each of the four units begins with an introduction which outlines the progression of ideas through the ensuing chapters. In the *Terms You Should Know* at the beginning of each chapter, the most important terms used in the chapter are defined and the most difficult ones are pronounced phonetically.

Each chapter closes with a summary and a vocabulary review. The latter is a list of all the terms that have appeared in boldface italics in the chapter. For quick reference, all of these lists are combined alphabetically, with their definitions, in a glossary at the end of the book. Two sets of questions and two sets of problems assure an adequate review of each chapter. Group A questions

and problems involve the recall of ideas in the chapter. The Group B materials require the student to apply the concepts of the chapter to related and thought-provoking situations.

United States Government Organization Manual. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. 1961. 821 pp. \$1.50. This manual, official organization handbook of the Federal government, contains detailed information on the legislative, judicial, and executive branches. It outlines the legislative authority, purposes, and functions of each agency; includes 41 charts showing the organization of the Congress, the executive departments, and the larger independent agencies; and lists the names of more than 4200 key officials.

A 58-page section provides brief histories of Federal agencies whose functions have been abolished or transferred since March 4, 1933; another 30-page section lists several hundred representative publications available from government establishments. This manual is a perennial "best seller" among government publications. It is compiled by the Office of the Federal Register of GSA's National Archives and Records Service.

WEST, KITTY. *Hand Coloring Your Photographs with Oils and Dyes.* Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56th & Chestnut Street. 1961. 124 pp. \$2.95. This new book is for those who want to work with colors to add a new dimension to photographs. Here are coloring techniques, from the simple method of coloring regular studio prints to application of heavy opaque oils, to canvas-surface papers, which are very much in demand today and resemble fine, expensive oil paintings. Also the coloring of photographic mural enlargements.

Pamphlets for Teacher-Pupil Use

Addresses at the 39th Annual Convention of the National Association of Broadcasters. May 7-10, 1961. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Broadcasters, 1771 N Street, N. W. 1961. 39 pp. Includes the addresses of President Kennedy; LeRoy Collins, President of the National Association of Broadcasters; Newton N. Minow, Chairman of the Federal Communications Commission; Abraham Ribicoff, Secretary of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and Justin Miller, former President of NAB and recipient of NAB 1961 Distinguished Service Award.

Aiding in Education. New York 17: Edison Electric Institute, 750 Third Avenue. 31 pp. A manual indicating ways electric companies may be helpful to secondary schools.

Annotated Bibliography of Materials in Economic Education. New York 36: Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 West 46th Street. 1961. 72 pp. 75¢. Lists those current publications which appear to be most useful to teachers and others engaged in developing economic understandings and competencies in various subject matter fields and at different grade levels.

BERNARDIS, A. D.; V. W. DOHERTY; ERRETT HUMMEL; and C. W. BRUBAKER. *Planning Schools for New Media.* Portland, Oregon: Division of Education, Portland State College. 1961. 72 pp. \$1. Presents essential information needed by laymen, school people, and architects for planning schools to utilize modern teaching technology.

Better Teaching Better Learning. St. Louis 30: University College, Washington University. 1961. 28 pp. 50¢; 25¢ each for ten or more copies. Pertains to the teaching of adults.

BRICE, E. W. *Education of the Adult Migrant.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 106 pp. 50¢. The chief concern of this bulletin is with the large aggregation of internal migrants who leave their communities for urban centers in search of work and other opportunities.

BROWN, K. E., and D. W. SNADER, editors. *Inservice Education of High-School Mathematics Teachers.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 114 pp. 50¢. A report of a conference under the joint auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics in Washington, D. C. March 17-19, 1960.

CASS, JAMES, editor. *Books in the Schools.* New York 18: American Book Publishers Council, Inc., 58 West 40th Street. 1961. 70 pp. \$1. Contains an introduction by the editor; a foreword by Storer B. Lunt, President of the American Book Publishers Council; and the following articles: Books in the Schools by Martin Mayer; Books in an Era of Educational Change by John H. Fischer; Tools for Man the Learner by Francis S. Chase; Science by Julius Schwartz; Literature by Richard Corbin; Foreign Language by Filomena Peloro; History and Social Studies by Ralph Adams Brown; Pennsylvania: A Case History by Morton Botel; The Impact of Newer Media by Abram W. VanderMeer; Publishers' Problems and Proposals by Dan Lacy; The Good School Library by Virginia H. Mathews; and a list of sources for further reading.

CHARLESWORTH, J. C., editor. *Is International Communism Winning?* Philadelphia 4: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3937 Chestnut Street. 1961. 242 pp. \$2. (\$3. clothbound). This July 1961 issue of *The Annals* contains 16 papers discussing this important question.

Community Development. Washington 6, D. C.: National Training Laboratories, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 112 pp. \$2. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Contains papers published since 1945 by various members of the National Training Laboratories staff, together with some unpublished materials—all bearing on major concerns in human relations training. Also available from the same source at \$2 per copy is another publication in this Series No. 3—*Forces in Learning*. This publication likewise includes staff papers related to this area.

CONANT, J. B. *Trial and Error in the Improvement of Education.* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 24 pp. 50¢. An address given before the 16th Annual ASCD Conference in Chicago, March 13, 1961.

Controversial Issues in the Classroom. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 36 pp. 50¢; 2-9 copies, 10% discount, 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Presents guidelines and classroom hints and also includes two printed policy statements reflecting statewide practices, five representing practices of individual school systems, and one stating the guiding policy of a social studies department.

EATON, D. K. *Teaching Machines.* Eugene, Oregon: Hugh B. Wood, Editor, Curriculum Bulletin, University of Oregon, School of Education. 1961. 12 pp. 50¢. A description of the various machines in existence.

Educational Development Program. Atlanta 3, Georgia: Metropolitan School Development Council, 13th Floor, City Hall. 1961. 51 pp. Part I describes the major conditions and problems affecting education in this area and elsewhere and Part II proposes a 10-year educational improvement program for the Atlanta and Fulton County schools.

Educational TV . . . A Primer. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Thompson Ramo Woolridge Inc., Educational Electronics Division, 532 Sylvan Avenue. 1961. 24 pp. A non-technical discussion on Educational TV, this booklet delves into the various areas most likely to be investigated by administrators of schools, colleges, and universities who are contemplating the medium's use in their system. Detailed illustrations and their comprehensive descriptions will fully prepare educators for objective analysis of manufacturer's equipment. Closed circuit TV systems shown range from the basic closed circuit TV systems to the professional studio-type viewfinder TV cameras, monitors, and consoles. The applications and limitations of each type of system are also discussed.

ELING, J. V., editor. *The New Media in Education.* Sacramento 19: Sacramento State College Foundation, Sacramento State College. 6000 Jay Street. 1961. 108 pp. 50¢. A report of the Western Regional Conference on educational media research held in Sacramento, California, April 20-22, 1960.

Europe, Near East, Far East, Africa. Washington 6, D. C.: Conference Board of Associated Research Councils Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1961. 99 pp. Describes programs for 1962-63 in university lecturing and advanced research in 24 foreign countries to American scholars under the Fulbright Act.

FELSHIN, JANET. *Girls' Sports Organization Handbook.* Washington 6, D. C.: The Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 44 pp. 75¢. Contains many helpful suggestions on organizing girls' sports.

Financing Education for Our Changing Population. Washington 6, D. C.: Division of Press and Radio Relations, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 111 pp. \$1. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Information based on the proceeding of the fourth National School Finance Conference in St. Louis, Missouri, April 27-28, 1961.

GAVIN, R. E., and E. L. HUTCHINSON. *Reference Manual for Stenographers and Typists*, third edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 188 pp. A ready reference for use by persons engaged in any one of many different pursuits—as students and workers.

GOWAN, J. C. *An Annotated Bibliography on the Academically Talented Student.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association Project on the Academically Talented Student, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 156 pp. \$1. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. An annotated résumé of the more significant writings of the past decade on the academically talented student—a list which will be maximally helpful to the knowledgeable consumer of research, whether in a school system, university, or other areas of life. In compiling the bibliography, emphasis has been placed on the following: (1) research which contains implications for practice; (2) theoretical statements of some degree of specificity; (3) investigations of newer aspects of the subject (e.g., creativity, achievement, guidance); (4) material in those areas not well covered previously; and (5) bibliographies and other heuristic materials.

GROPPER, G. L., and A. A. LUMSDAINE. *The Use of Student Response To Improve Televised Instruction: An Overview*. Pittsburgh: American Institute for Research, 410 Amberson Avenue. 1961. 34 pp. Describes three types of studies in which junior high-school pupils' performance was effectively used before, during, and after TV lessons as a means of evaluating the adequacy of and as a means of improving televised instruction.

HALL, R. A., JR. *Sound and Spelling in English*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1961. 34 pp. \$1. The author explains the relation between writing and speech.

Highlights of President Kennedy's New Act for International Development. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 46 pp. 20¢. Part I, "Building the Frontiers of Freedom," is a statement made on May 31, 1961 by the Secretary of State before the Senate Relations Committee in support of the Act. Part II is a summary of the Act (*An Act for International Development, Fiscal Year 1962* available from the above address for 75 cents). Also available from the same source for 20 cents is *Urgent National Needs—A Special Message to Congress by President Kennedy* (38 pages).

How Foreign Policy Is Made. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 20 pp. 25¢. Explains who makes our foreign policy, who decides what, the role of Congress, and the need for the interest of the public.

HUBBARD, A. W., and R. A. WEISS. *Complete Research in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*. Volume 3. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 96 pp. \$1.50. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Volumes 1 and 2 also available for \$1.50 each. Each contains an index, a bibliography of research published in periodicals, and abstracts of unpublished masters' and doctors' theses.

International Teacher Development Program 1959-60; Annual Report to the Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs. U. S. Department of State. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 1961. 92 pp. The U. S. Office of Education, the agency which administers this teacher training program presents its annual report. That office, during the 1959 fiscal year, arranged educational activities for 486 visiting educators from 65 countries and dependencies.

Investing in Scientific Progress 1961-1970. Washington 25, D. C.: National Science Foundation, 1951 Constitution Avenue, N. W. 1961. 32 pp. The report carefully analyzes science education trends over the past 40 years and projects these trends to 1970. The major goal stated by the report is: "Every young person who shows the desire and the capacity to become a scientist should be ensured the opportunity to do so." Achieving this goal, it points out, will not deprive other professions of the intellectual leadership required for their own increasing needs.

IODICE, D. R. *Guidelines to Language Teaching in Classroom and Laboratory*. Washington, D. C.: Teaching Research and Technology Division, Electronic Teaching Laboratories. 1961. 64 pp. \$1.25. Helps for teachers in establishing and administering classroom laboratory language programs and in evaluating methodology and texts.

LEWIS, H. P. *Art Education in the Elementary School*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 33 pp. 25¢; 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. This is an interpretation of what research says to the teacher.

LONG, N. J., and R. G. NEWMAN. *The Teacher's Handling of Children in Conflict*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, School of Education. 1961. 72 pp. \$1.25. Discusses (1) the feelings of teachers, (2) the interaction between a teacher and a child, and (3) the teacher's role in managing the surface behavior of children. It demonstrates the functional use of psychological knowledge in an educational setting.

MACKIE, R. P., and F. P. CONNOR. *Teachers of Crippled Children and Teachers of Children with Special Health Problems*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 135 pp. 50¢. Discusses qualifications and preparation of teachers of exceptional children.

MAGNUSON, H. W., and P. J. TASHNOVIAN. *Salaries of Certificated Employees*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1961. 18 pp. A study of salaries paid to certificated personnel in the public schools of California for the year 1960-61 including full-time teachers, administrators (except superintendent, associate, assistant, and deputy superintendent, and business managers), supervisors, and other specially classified personnel—kindergarten through Grade 14.

MEECE, L. E., and HOWARD ECKEL. *Experimentation in Preparing School Teachers*. Lexington: University of Kentucky, College of Education. 1961. 95 pp. \$1. Contains a report of a project in educational administration supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

MOUNT, KICK, and K. J. HANSES. *Progressive Typewriting Speed Practice*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 96 pp. \$1.96. This book is for typists who wish to increase their typing speed. To help them achieve this, there are 168 practice selections that are carefully planned to simplify and speed up the process of growth in typing skill. The training is based on three speed-building steps—first, very easy; second, easy; and third, normal or average in difficulty.

Multiple Classes Learning in Small Groups. Oneonta, New York: Catskill Area Project, State University College of Education. 1961. 33 pp. 50¢. 5-10 copies, 45¢ a copy; 11-25 copies, 40¢ a copy; 26-50 copies, 35¢ a copy; 51 or more copies, 25¢ a copy. A report on the Catskill Area Project directed to the small school in relatively remote areas in an effort to provide high-quality education compatible with the needs of its pupils and community it serves.

MUNSE, A. R. *Revenue Programs for the Public Schools in the United States 1959-60*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 88 pp. 55¢. This report is intended as a planning aid to broaden the field of experience by which school finance specialists may recommend and establish new and better programs for financing public education. Data provided by state departments of education.

PALEY, W. S. *The Path to Leadership*. New York 22: Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue. 1961. 14 pp. Free. An address by the chairman of the Board of CBS. He defines the true measure of success as character, standing, freedom to move, and fundamental financial soundness.

PALMER, R. R., and W. M. RICE. *Laboratories and Classrooms for High-School Physics*. New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 32 pp. Free. Contains information and recommendations to assist school planners in designing physics rooms. This report constitutes Chapter 12 of the book *Modern Physics Buildings—Design and Function* published by Rinehold Publishing Corporation of New York City.

POLNER, MURRAY. *Enriching Social Studies*. Valley Stream, Long Island: Teachers Practical Press, Inc., 47 Frank Street. 1961. 60 pp. \$1.75. Practical helps for the social studies teacher discussing the lesson plan, the term paper, the critical book review, the social studies journal, forums and debates, audio-visual materials, television, trips, original sources, and the teacher as a source of enrichment.

POSTMAN, NEIL. *Television and the Teaching of English*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 West 32nd Street. 1961. 148 pp. A report of a study of TV by the National Council of Teachers of English.

Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for School Library Services. Washington 6, D. C.: Council of Chief State School Officers, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 23 pp. 35¢. 10-99 copies, 30¢; 100 or more, 25¢. Also available from the same source is *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Nursery School and Kindergarten*. (1961. 23 pp. 30¢; 10-99 copies, 25¢; 100 or more, 20¢.)

The Role of State and Local Government in Meeting the Demand for Outdoor Recreation. Washington 25, D. C.: Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission. 1961. 143 pp. Proceedings of the Fourth Joint Meeting with its Advisory Council, March 12-13, 1961.

ROSENBERG, R. R. *Principles and Problems in College Business Mathematics*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 220 pp. \$3. A text-workbook organized around three phases of instruction: summary of related mathematics, exercises for practice, and review and application suitable for assignments outside of the regular classroom.

Salaries Paid Central-Office School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 84 pp. 75¢. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Information on salaries paid in 1960-61 to administrative and supervisory officers in the central office staffs by separate school districts.

Salaries Paid Classroom Teachers and Certain Other School Employees, 1960-61, Urban Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population. Publications-Sales, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 91 pp. 75¢. 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Reports median and mean salaries, distributions and quantities actually paid to 179,985 classroom teachers in 510 school systems, 30,000-99,999 in population in the school year 1960-61. It also shows similar information for certain other employees in these urban school districts.

SAMUELSON, P. A., and ROMNEY ROBINSON. *Study Guide and Workbook*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 252 pp. \$2.75. This pupil workbook has been prepared to help students master the ideas and principles in the text *Economics: An Introductory Analysis* published by this company.

SCHICK, F. L., and W. H. KURTH. *The Cost of Library Materials: Price Trends of Publications*. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. 1961. 20 pp. Provides information on the quantity of U. S. trade books published over the last 30 years and the prices of books, periodicals, and serial services which will be of assistance in library planning, budgeting, and the maintenance of balanced collections.

SMITH, GLYNISE, editor. *Aquatics Guide July 1961-July 1963*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 160 pp. \$1. Contains helpful articles on aquatics and includes the official rules and swimming and diving standards.

Spectator Sportsmanship. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1961. 78 pp. \$1.50. Tells why spectator sportsmanship is a problem and also how to improve the situation.

STECKEIN, J. E. *How To Measure Faculty Work Load*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1961. 62 pp. Discusses use and value of faculty work load studies; various methods of measuring faculty work load; formation of a faculty advisory committee; determining guiding policies; developing report forms; the content of a faculty activities report; distributing and collecting forms; tabulating, analyzing, and reporting results; and uses of faculty load data—all pertaining to the college and university.

SWEET, W. E. *Clozes and Vocabulary Exercises for Books I and II of the Aeneid*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1961. 102 pp. \$3.50. This book is intended for individual outside study, for which it is particularly suited because of the opportunity the student has to check when he is in doubt. Class time need be taken only for checking the results. This cloze technique uses portions of the *Aeneid* except that in each line part of some word has been removed. The pupil reads each line, trying to recall the missing part. If he is unable to do this, he refers to the original.

Switzerland in Pictures. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Company, 419 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 64 pp. \$1. An interesting story in text and picture of the country the Romans called Helvetia. This booklet captures the contrasts between urban and rural areas and between mountains and valleys. Governmental organizations, customs, education, animal life, industry and sports are also among the topics included.

TICKTON, S. G. *Teaching Salaries Then and Now—A Second Look*. New York 22: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 45 pp. Free. A comparison of the average salaries of teachers with that of other professional and non-professional from 1904 to 1960; also shows salaries deflated to "real" purchasing power based on 1904.

TOLLIVER, W. E., and H. H. ARMSBY. *Engineering Enrollments and Degrees 1960*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 50 pp. 35¢. A survey covering 240 institutions of higher education. Part I contains summaries and brief discussions of data and Part II reports detailed data on individual institutions and curriculums.

VITUS, SHIRLEY, and FLORENCE SCHIRZA. *Unit on Propaganda*. Eugene: Hugh B. Wood, Editor, Curriculum Bulletin, University of Oregon, School of Education. 1961. 18 pp. 70¢. A 3- to 4-week general unit planned for use early in the year with a class in journalism for college preparatory students.

WATSON, GOODWIN. *What Psychology Can We Trust?* New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1961. 19 pp. 40¢. Drawing on the body of "fairly firm facts" that has gradually accumulated, the author formulates fifty statements of what we really know today about children and learning and comments briefly on their meaning for education. The propositions represent a wide range of educational concerns and

touch on many perplexing specifics (discipline, homogeneous grouping, and teaching machines, for instance) on which important practical decisions depend.

We Drivers. Detroit 2: Educational Relation, Public Relations Staff, General Motors Corporation, 3044 West Grand Boulevard. 1959. 40 pp. A series of brief discussions on driving dedicated to the safety, comfort, and pleasure of the motoring public. Many other pamphlets are available from this same source. Some of these are: *A Power Primer* (101 pp.), *Power Goes to Work* (136 pp.), *American Battle for Abundance* (103 pp.), *Transportation Progress* (57 pp.), *Short Stories of Science and Invention* (126 pp.), *Metalurgy and Wheels* (50 pp.), *ABC's of Hand Tools* (49 pp.), *Electricity and Wheels* (32 pp.), *Diesel the Modern Power* (32 pp.), *Optics and Wheels* (32 pp.), *Engineering Safety Into Today's Cars* (47 pp.), *The Story of Power* (51 pp.), *A to Zero of Refrigeration* (96 pp.), *Precision, A Measure of Progress* (64 pp.), *How the Wheels Revolve* (30 pp.).

Also available from the same source is a number of wall charts in color, 22" x 34". Among these are the following titles: *Automobile Chassis, Automobile Progress* (from 1600 to 1960 with illustrations, also a discussion of each picture appears on the back of most of the charts), *Automobile Stopping Distances* (illustrated with text on back of chart), *Diesel Cycle Diagram* (5 illustrations each of the 4-stroke and the 2-stroke cycles with text on back), *Four-stroke Cycle and Flame Travel* (text on back), *From Iron Ore to the Finished Automobile*, *Three Speed Gear Transmission* (with text on back), *Automobile Ignition System* (text on back), *Automobile Fuel System* (text on back), *Typical Gear Combinations*, *Brake System*, *Steering System*, *Body Construction*, and *Horsepower for Safety*.

WEINSTOCK, RUTH. *Space and Dollars: An Urban University Expands.* New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 47 pp. Free. A report on the economic physical expansion of urban universities based on a case study of the Drexel Institute of Technology in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Yearbook of Railroad Information, 1961 edition. Jersey City 2: Eastern Railroad Presidents Conference, One Exchange Place. 1961. 104 pp. This yearbook is a statistical picture of the railroad industry in the United States. It shows the net income for 1960 was \$445 million as against \$927 million in 1955, an over-all decline of 52 per cent.

Youth Physical Fitness: Suggested Elements of a School-Centered Program. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 14 pp. 40¢. Part I deals with concept and foundations and Part II tests, activities, and references. It is designed for teachers of all grade levels who are responsible for carrying out the physical fitness program of the school.

News Notes

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, NOVEMBER 5-11

President John F. Kennedy has proclaimed November 5-11 American Education Week, urging that "we honor our teachers and school officials, for whom every week is education week. The education of our people should be a life-long process by which we continue to feed new vigor into the lifestream of the Nation through intelligent, reasoned decisions," the President said. "Let us not think of education only in terms of its costs, but rather in terms of the infinite potential of the human mind that can be realized through education. Let us think of education as the means of developing our greatest abilities, because in each of us there is a private hope and dream which, fulfilled, can be translated into benefit for everyone and greater strength for our Nation." Calling wide knowledge and the free interchange of thought "essential to the growth and vitality of our Nation," the President urged that citizens "focus attention upon the force for good which education has been and must continue to be in our national life. . . ."

This year will mark the 41st annual observance of American Education Week. It is sponsored by the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the American Legion. The theme is *Your Schools: Time for a Progress Report*. In addition to the main theme, the following daily topics have been selected:

Sunday, Nov. 5—Time To Test Our Convictions

Monday, Nov. 6—Time To Decide on Essentials

Tuesday, Nov. 7—Time To Work Together

Wednesday, Nov. 8—Time To Explore New Ideas

Thursday, Nov. 9—Time To Salute Good Teachers

Friday, Nov. 10—Time To Pay the Price for Excellence

Saturday, Nov. 11—Time To Look Outside Our Borders

Special packet containing an assortment of 27 items as aids to teachers is available for \$1.50 from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

NSTA OFFERS 25 COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

The National Science Teachers Association (NSTA) has announced that, under the 1961-62 Future Scientists of America Awards program, high-school students will be able to compete for \$250 college scholarships for excellence in scientific projects in addition to other awards totalling \$10,000. Robert Carleton, NSTA executive secretary, said in announcing the expanded FSA Awards program, that 25 college scholarships will be awarded to student winners in the eleventh and twelfth grades. This is the first year that this program has included awards of this kind. In addition to the scholarships, recognition awards will also be given for outstanding scientific projects. Winners in this category will receive bronze and silver medallions and student and school certificates for grades seven through twelve.

Teachers may obtain information, entry materials, and program instructions by writing directly to Future Scientists of America, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Written reports of the students' projects must be submitted not later than March 31, 1962. The Future Scientists of America Awards program is conducted by NSTA and is co-sponsored by a number of scientific, engineering, and technological societies, and trade associations.

OUTSTANDING EDUCATIONAL BOOKS

To help readers find the most useful titles among the 725 educational publications issued during 1960, the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore has made available a leaflet describing briefly 45 outstanding books. The books were selected with the help of educational authorities from all parts of the United States. Reprints of this list, which appeared originally in the May 1961 issue of the *NEA Journal*, are available from the Publications Department, Enoch Pratt Free Library, 400 Cathedral Street, Baltimore 1, Maryland, at five cents a copy, cash with order.

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION SUMMER FELLOWSHIPS

As one means of improving the teaching of science and mathematics in American secondary schools, the National Science Foundation plans to award, on March 15, 1962, several hundred Summer Fellowships to secondary-school teachers of science and mathematics. Those who receive fellowships must pursue a program of *graduate-level* work in the subject matter of science or mathematics. The fellowships will be awarded to support individually planned programs of study in the mathematical, physical, and biological sciences at a level that is acceptable by the fellowship institution toward an advanced degree in any of these subject matter disciplines.

A teacher may apply for fellowship support for one, two, or three summers. Each applicant chooses that college or university at which he wishes to study—there is no list of college and universities selected for this purpose. The fellowship program is completely separate from the NSF summer institute program. It is recommended that a program of study for the period of the fellowship be developed with the assistance of a staff member at the proposed fellowship institution. The program of study is a very important part of the application.

The closing date for receipt of applications is January 2, 1962. Information and application forms will be sent upon request addressed to Secondary-School Fellowships, American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES VERSUS COLLEGE GRADES

H. C. Pry, Principal of Wilksburg Senior High School, 747 Wallace Avenue, Pittsburgh 21, Pennsylvania, reports that a survey of the school's 1959 graduates (109) was made in order to determine how they progressed in college. Each student's quality point average earned during the tenth, eleventh, and the first semester of the twelfth year was compared with the average of his grades at the end of the first year of college. Of 106 students compared, 7 students who had an average grade of "C" in high school raised their college grade by one point; one "D" student also raised his college grade one point; 3 "A" students, 19 "B" students, 12 "C" students, and 4 "D" students main-

tained the same record in college; and 12 "A" students, 27 "B" students, and 21 "C" students each averaged 1 point lower in college. It should be understood that the first year of college work is difficult for the beginning college student. In this present study one grade drop in college is considered as reasonable. In that case, then, 89% of the graduates did as well as should be expected, 44% received grades which were the same as or higher than their grades at Wilkinsburg. Another 45% had an average of one grade lower while only 11% dropped two grades lower. One student dropped 3 points lower.

INTERCOM PUBLICATIONS

Intercom is an information service for citizen education and activity in world affairs published seven times a year by the Foreign Policy Association—World Affairs Center, 345 East 46th Street, New York 17, New York. Each one reports on who is doing what in world affairs; new books, pamphlets, study and program materials; and current trends in American public opinion. It draws on hundreds of private and official sources and then selects and describes the most useful and newsworthy information and materials. It features a timely topic in addition to the regular "Monthly Roundup" of news. Though published seven times a year, it is not a magazine—it is an information service. A subscription is \$3 per year to teachers and \$5 to others. Also available at 75 cents each are *Directory of Voluntary Organizations in World Affairs*, *Focus on the Soviet Union*, and *Annual World Affairs Program Handbook*.

HELP PROMOTE HUMANITARIAN WORK

Will you help the United Nations Children's Fund provide the milk, medicine, and equipment to help children in more than one hundred countries to be better fed, to be healthier, and to have a chance for a longer life? You can help. You can make an important contribution to the work of the Children's Fund by joining with hundreds of other volunteers in the promotion and sale of UNICEF Greeting Cards. Since 1950, when UNICEF Greeting Cards were first introduced, more and more Americans have chosen this way to help the sick and hungry children all over the world. Many more would if only they knew about UNICEF cards—how the proceeds from their sale are used to fight disease and hunger which threaten more than 700 million children who live in economically underdeveloped areas. Proceeds from the sale of one box alone can provide the BCG vaccine to protect 50 children against tuberculosis. As few as five boxes can supply a daily glass of milk for 42 children for a month. For full particulars write to U. S. Committee for UNICEF—Greeting Cards, Room 1860, United Nations, New York.

A TWO-TWO PLAN IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

A solution to the serious problem of steadily mounting enrollments in high schools may be found in a two-tier organization plan originated by District 218, Blue Island, Illinois. Dr. Harold L. Richards, Superintendent and originator of the plan, states that an eleven-year evaluation of his "Two-Two Plan" has "brought benefits to the area far beyond the original intent of solving our school housing program." He also reports that the plan has proved to have advantages which "can hardly be achieved as well through any other methods."

Although the plan, which provides for the separation of the student body into two levels, was initiated to cope with a housing emergency situation, it was quickly accepted as the permanent organizational structure of the school

district. Other districts have also adopted it, or are considering doing so. School architects and others make frequent visits to Blue Island to study or observe the "two-two" operation.

In the Richards "Two-Two Plan," juniors and seniors are quartered in their own centrally located school on a thirty-acre site, which is also the nucleus for all area recreational and social activities. Freshmen and sophomores are housed in separate two-year, community oriented feeder schools. By 1965, at which time the present high-school population of 3900 is expected to double, there will be four freshman-sophomore schools located in principal residential centers of the 32 square mile district.

The two-two setup, according to Richards, not only offers a housing solution, but represents an efficient method of decentralization which serves to slow down a current trend to build larger and larger secondary institutions. It also protects against a possible factory-like production of high-school graduates.

Advantages of the plan as listed by Richards in his report to administrators are: (a) a quicker and more lasting adjustment from grade to high school; (b) smaller enrollments at the freshman-sophomore schools offer the advantages of small school with greater opportunity for students to develop personality and leaderships; (c) small student bodies permit closer supervision and better discipline; (d) more effectual faculty-student relationships and improved instruction; (e) improved administration; (f) strengthened community relationships with more easily gained financial support; (g) both student levels benefit from separation with a solid educational foundation assured by graduation time.

While there might be some added cost to the operation of a two-tier high-school system, this is inconsequential, Richards states. For each feeder school, there are only added salaries of a principal and a part-time caretaker. Also chargeable to each unit, over and above the expense of comparable space within a large single structure, is the cost of two walls. These items are offset somewhat by the reduction in the cost of pupil transportation, since the pupils are closer to their homes.

The "Two-Two Plan" offers a means to needed decentralization in areas that cannot use a junior high-school system, Richards says. Even in dual system districts, this plan can provide expanded facilities without complicating administration, he concludes.

SCIENCE FOR THE SCHOOLS

Science Kit, Inc. specializes in school science equipment and supplies. Among some of the materials prepared especially for school use by Science Kit, Inc. include *Science Kit* (all grades), *Science Kit Jr.* (grades 1-3), a science kit portable lab table, and '300' lab table with optional apparatus sets, microscopes, instruments, and audio-visual aids. For complete information, including free literature and catalogs, write to Science Kit, Inc., Box 69, Tonawanda, New York.

LANGUAGE TRAINING AIDS

Language Training Aids of Boyds, Maryland, has announced a new catalog of correlated visual and sound programs for foreign language teaching. The catalog contains filmstrips and slides having matching dialogs on tapes, records, flashcards, and other aids. Also included is a section containing equipment. A free copy may be secured by writing to Language Training Aids, Inc.

WALLCHARTS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES

The Educational Productions Limited, East Ardsley, Wakefield, Yorkshire, England, has a number of wallcharts in 3 to 5 colors which are excellent for instructional purposes. Each chart is 20" x 30" and is available for one shilling each. Following are descriptions of four of these wallcharts:

Glass—Bottles and Jars (c 701)—This 3-color chart shows in simplified diagrammatic form how the raw materials from which glass is produced are mixed and melted; and then how the glass is formed by one of two methods into the familiar bottle or jar shape. A map showing the location of the glass container industry is included, with brief notes on the different uses of glass bottles and jars.

Linear Measurement (C 758)—This 3-color chart demonstrates how an irregular area is measured by a Gunter's Chain, and by an Invar Band. A diagram also shows how the information is transferred from the field book to the drawing board. Further drawings illustrate the uses of steel survey bands, woven and steel measuring tapes, and push-pull rules.

Uses of Oxygen (C 707)—This is the third in a series of chemical charts. The first two dealt with *Acetylene* and *Oxygen*. This new chart illustrates how liquid oxygen is transported and shows its different uses in oxy-acetylene welding and cutting, in oxy-hydrogen cutting under water, in aviation and rockets, and in hospitals. Also shown are three important uses of tonnage oxygen, and brief information is included about oxygen plants and the chemical and physical properties of the gas.

Flat Glass Manufacture (C 717)—This 5-color chart illustrates in clear diagrams the three modern methods of manufacturing flat glass. It gives the approximate proportion of ingredients required and stresses the importance of accurate weighing and correct mixing. The chart also shows the Drawn Sheet method, plate glass production, and float glass production.

SCIENCE AND THE SEATTLE WORLD'S FAIR

The National Science Teachers Association (NSTA) is preparing to bring "the thrill of scientific discovery" to almost two million youngsters when the 1962 world's fair, the "Century 21 Exposition," opens next year in Seattle, Washington, according to an announcement by Robert H. Carleton, NSTA executive secretary. NSTA, a department of the National Education Association, will develop and supervise a series of "do-it yourself" exhibits designed to introduce science concepts to children between the ages of nine and 13. Robert F. Rice, head of the science department at Berkeley (California) High School has been named coordinator of the project. He is working closely with the U. S. Department of Commerce, sponsors of the Exposition.

Present plans call for approximately 30 different scientific exhibits. They will offer opportunities to mix chemicals and record reactions, perform experiments in physics, and observe biological developments. One exhibit involves putting a satellite into orbit around the moon. If calculations are correctly done, a billiard ball will react similarly to a satellite. One of the biggest problems Mr. Rice anticipates has to do with keeping adults from crowding out the children. The exposition, the first space-age world's fair, opens April 22, 1962, and closes October 22.

Important New Educational Directories

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HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES WIN SCHOLARSHIPS

Four hundred and forty-five 1961 high-school graduates have been awarded scholarships valued at more than \$1.8 million for study at Cornell University. The winners come from 35 states, the District of Columbia, and three Latin American countries—Argentina, El Salvador, and Puerto Rico. New York State with 212 students receiving scholarships is first in the number of winners; Pennsylvania with 47 winners places second, and New Jersey with 37 is third. Other states with over ten recipients include Massachusetts, 18; Connecticut, 16; Illinois, 16; and Ohio, 13.

CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

When most of their classmates were shelving notebooks for the summer, 21 Champaign-Urbana students began a unique project in learning at the University of Illinois High School. Their course—first of its kind—was creative problem solving. Their instructors were programmed textbooks—simplest of the teaching machines. The six-week Summer Institute on Creative Problem Solving ended for the students on July 28, but the work had just begun at the University's Training Research Laboratory.

From student performances, the researchers will determine how much of the generalized skill acquired through teaching machines is applied by the student in problem solving. They have already found that advanced materials, if properly prepared, can be mastered by high-school students, noting the group's average scores virtually matched those of a college class introduced to the same subject matter last semester.

The students, representing a wide range of creative ability, studied descriptive statistics, logic, and mathematics through the use of programmed textbooks which present the material and follow it up in question-and-answer form. After moving on to more advanced material, they were tested in small group and individual problem solving situations. University of Illinois Professor, Lawrence Stolurow, director of the project, calls it a "program in thinking" which the students may apply in the future to their high-school and college studies.

U. S. SCHOOLS OVERSEAS

Improvement of schools for children overseas whose parents are engaged in international programs in Asia, Africa, and Europe has been assisted by a special grant of \$10,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation to the International Schools Foundation. The latter, a non-profit agency, provides professional services to overseas schools.

"Adequate overseas schools for American children are an absolute necessity if we are to staff our many activities abroad with well-qualified persons," Dr. John J. Brooks, president of the International Schools Foundation, said in announcing the grant. "About fifty such schools have been founded by Americans serving the U. S. government and industry in Asia, Africa, and Europe," he said. "Most of them were started in the past ten years. Today these schools, still little known to most people in America, enroll more than 13,000 American youngsters, and are attended by some 6,000 students from other countries, making each of them a real center of international understanding." The International Schools Foundation, with offices at 147 East 59th Street in New York and 2000 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., in Washington, D. C., was founded

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six years ago as an American private agency in support of these civilian overseas schools. The International Schools Foundation recruits teachers, plans curricula, selects supplies, and provides educational counseling and field services for the overseas schools. Its Washington office, directed by Finley P. Dunne, Jr., works on the welfare of overseas schools in cooperation with agencies of the United States government, as well as non-governmental resources in that area.

"The vital role of this 'international school system' has been receiving growing recognition," said Dr. Brooks. "We have been grateful for the concern of various government agencies and the financial support of many foundations and industries." The first of several basic studies of this new international and educational phenomenon was made four years ago by the International Schools Foundation. Results of the study have been made widely available to government, international industry, and organizations involved in world security and overseas programs.

More than one and one-half million Americans are now living overseas, most of them serving programs of military defense, diplomacy, business, and industrial and technical development. Their presence abroad is augmented by thousands of other nationals serving similar roles. Together, Americans and citizens of many other lands are living in "international communities" in most of the countries of the world.

The ISF studies have revealed that such international communities tend to use American-sponsored, parent-founded overseas schools as a common facility, bringing together inter-cultural classmates from many countries. Russians abroad usually educate their children within the compounds of their overseas embassies. "With the kind of help which ISF is fostering," says Dr. Brooks, "the overseas schools can serve in themselves as dramatic examples of international cooperation—as well as meeting a basic family need of overseas Americans. Many of the schools can and should become laboratories for inter-cultural education; to an extent, some already play this role. The overseas classrooms provide a setting for daily demonstration of the best characteristics and instincts of American culture and family life, in the most genuine of international circumstances."

NEW SCIENCE FILMS

One of the latest releases from the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center is *Constellations, Guides to the Night Sky*, an astronomy film designed for intermediate and junior high-school general science classes and high-school beginning astronomy classes. This 11-minute film may be used (1) to aid in learning to recognize and locate some of the better known constellations, (2) to show how constellations serve as guides in locating other constellations, and (3) to acquaint the viewer with some of the types of stars and other celestial objects that can be seen only through a telescope. The film is available in either color or black and white, for purchase or rental.

This film points out man's age-old interest in the stars and their use in navigation and time determination. Through animation, the film uses easily recognized constellations for locating other constellations and celestial objects in the northern and southern skies. Overprints of the appropriate figures relate constellations to their mythological origins. Some of the constellations and

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celestial objects identified are the Big Dipper, Ursa Major, Polaris, the Little Dipper, Cepheus, Cassiopeia, Andromeda, Orion, the Great Nebula, the Pleiades, and Sirius. The vastness of the universe beyond man's present exploration is emphasized during the concluding scenes.

Another film, *Genetic Investigations*, one of the latest productions of the Audio-Visual Center, is now available for either purchase or rental. Designed for high-school biology, and college beginning biology, botany, and zoology classes. It has the following purposes: (1) to present some of the steps and procedures involved in conducting controlled breeding experiments; (2) to show the results of some genetic crosses; and (3) to introduce three important areas of genetic research. The film is 12 minutes in length.

Using animation, the film shows Gregor Mendel conducting breeding experiments with pea plants that resulted in the formulation of the Mendelian Laws of Heredity. It then presents the advantages of using *Drosophila* for controlled breeding experiments.

Three important lines of genetic research are introduced. Dr. Herman J. Muller is shown bombarding fruit flies with X-ray. Some of the most obvious mutations produced in the descendants of the X-rayed flies are shown. Dr. Tracy Sonneborn is shown as he mixes different races of paramecia and observes that some become affected and soon die. A stained photomicrograph of a killer paramecium shows, in its cytoplasm, small self-duplicating particles which are associated with a killing substance produced by the paramecium.

A third film, *Jet and Rocket Engines*, has been prepared primarily for high-school science and physics classes. Available in either black and white or color, this ten-minute sound film proposes (1) to develop an understanding of the action-reaction principle, (2) to demonstrate the operation of reaction engines in both an atmosphere and a vacuum, and (3) to develop an appreciation of the historical beginnings of modern technology as typified by reaction engines.

By means of live photography, models, and animation, the film develops the principle of reaction and applies this principle to jet and rocket engines. A toy cannon is used to illustrate the concept of reaction as it applies to pulse jet engines. Through animation, the simpler ram-jet engine is shown and developed into the turbo jet engine. The need for fuel, air, and ignition is emphasized as each of the devices is explained.

Prints of these films may be secured by writing to the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. The purchase prices for the film are \$100 for color and \$50 for black and white; rental prices are \$3.25 for color and \$2.00 for black and white.

AIDS FOR MODEL U. N. MEETINGS

Oceana Publications, Inc., 80 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, has published *How To Plan and Conduct Model U. N. Meetings: A Handbook for Organizers*. (\$3 cloth; \$1.50, paperback.) The 128 page handbook will be a useful addition to the material and equipment of educators and organization leaders planning model United Nations meetings during the coming year. The handbook discusses the educational merits of model United Nations meetings, and lists complete step-by-step procedures for both organizers and participants.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE DICTIONARY SERIES

Monarch Books (Suite 1210, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.) is launching a new Monarch Foreign Language Phonetic Dictionary Series, with a new editorial approach to the use of phonetic pronunciation guides. The first volume in the new series—the *Monarch Italian Phonetic Dictionary* (50 cents) compiled by Joseph Castelli, former Public Relations Manager of the Italian Cultural Institute was published in a first printing of 200,000 copies. At regular intervals thereafter, Monarch Books will release other volumes in the Series with Spanish, French, and German scheduled for publication early in 1962.

AND NO BELLS RING

A dramatic two-part report of the ideas developed by the NASSP's Commission on Staff Utilization. Hugh Downs is the Reporter. Actual teachers, students, and administrators make up the cast.

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The two parts of *And No Bells Ring* are designed to be played together as a full 57-minute program or separately, 28½ minutes each. Both 16mm sound films and television tape recordings are available and cleared for all non-commercial uses, for group showings, and television.

These films were first shown at the Portland NASSP convention, but they were not generally available until last fall. Many principals have found them valuable in stimulating discussion among lay and professional groups in their communities. They were not designed to give final answers, but rather to raise questions. The NASSP presents them as another tool which principals can use to provide leadership in improving instruction.

To order the films write to: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Enclose \$3.00 rental charge for handling one or both films, or we can bill you. Give preferred program dates (please make 3 choices) and the number needed of the free supplementary guides, "New Directions to Quality Education."

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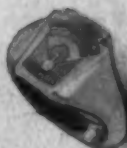
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